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ABSTRACT

The document explains how to develop learning package activities. Learning packages are self-instructional and self-paced learning systems that enable a learner to achieve objectives by becoming involved in individually selected activities. The document is presented in three sections. Section I introduces the rationale behind learning packages and discusses eight assumptions upon which learning packages rest. Assumptions are that individuals learn best when allowed to pursue their goals in the mode most suitable to them, become more responsible when they assume direction of their own learning programs, and are more interested in activities which differ from traditional textbook and question-answer approaches. Section II presents guidelines for developing learning package activities. Topics discussed include types of activities, criteria for selecting and developing activities, relating activities to objectives, and the mechanics of writing activities. Section III examines implementation of contemporary strategies in learning packages. Information is presented on various methods and approaches, use of special materials such as newspapers, and use of strategies such as simulations. References, readings, and a resource bibliography conclude the document. (Author/BC)

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DEVELOPING LEARNING PACKAGE ACTIVITIES

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LEARNING PACKAGE ACTIVITIES

Definition and Rationale

Although varying considerably in format and components, learning packages are generally defined as "a self-instructional learning system that enables learners to achieve objectives at their own rate, and meet their own needs and interests. It is a step-by-step set of directions that gives the learner options to meet certain well-defined objectives." (Guenther/Hansen, 1976)

The rationale for the development and use of learning packages rests upon two sets of assumptions about the process and content of learning. These assumptions make statements about the nature of learning and teaching, and the operationalization of the principles and procedures of individualized instruction. These assumptions may be found in two companion publications in this set of manuals: Hansen/Guenther, Developing Learning Packages to Individualize Instruction and Guenther/Hansen, Developing Learning Packages in Social Studies, University of Kansas, 1976.

Learning Package Activities: Rationale and Assumptions

The principle means of providing for individual needs and interests in learning packages is giving students options in their selection of activities to be completed in achieving the objectives. There are two types of activities used in learning packages. Resource Activities are designed to lead to the securing of information, skills or attitudes the package objectives will expect the student to achieve. In designing these activities, the developer should plan activities which will directly provide the student with the resources needed to achieve the predetermined objectives. Application Activities are designed to enable the student to do something with the content or skill developed in the Resource Activities. They should provide the student with an opportunity to practice the behavior they will be expected to demonstrate upon completion of the learning package.

The activities in a learning package help provide alternatives in student learning styles, achievement and ability levels, and differing needs and interests, while encouraging development of student decision-making and planning responsibility. The importance of learning package activities rests on the following assumptions:

1. Individuals have preferred learning styles and learn best when allowed to pursue their goals in the mode most suitable to them.
2. The success of a learning experience often rests on the quality and appropriateness of the activities used to teach the desired behaviors. Meaningless activities serve to teach little and frequently confuse or detract learners from the intended outcomes.

3. Interest in a learning package is often directly related to the interest and variety of the activities provided. Student enthusiasm and performance cannot be reasonably expected when learning packages are little different from traditional textbook and question-answer approaches often used in regular classroom instruction.
4. Increasing student responsibility for their own learning programs must be systematically taught through encouraging self-assessment and decision-making on matters over which students can reasonably exercise some control. Providing students with viable options in their learning can aid this development of student responsibility.
5. Students will more readily develop skill in varied learning styles when presented with choices and options that stimulate interest in trying different learning modes.
6. Specific learning behaviors and outcomes are most readily achieved when stated in distinct objectives and systematically developed through well-planned learning activities directly related to those objectives.
7. Student and teacher assessment of progress (the achievement of objectives) is enhanced when learning activities provide for the progressive development of the expected behaviors and outcomes. The skill with which students accomplish activities indicates the progress made toward the goals and can be observed by both teachers and students prior to final evaluation.
8. Individual student needs, abilities and interests are most effectively and efficiently provided for by varying the learning activities available to students. We do not all learn in the same way, at the same time and with the same proficiency, and alternative activities can best provide for these differences.

Based on these assumptions about learners and learning, the significance of the learning activities becomes apparent. In the traditional classroom (using traditional methods) it is extremely difficult to provide for individual differences and a variety of learning experiences. However, well-designed and systematically-developed learning packages can facilitate the realization of both goals. Properly done, learning packages provide one means of converting educational theory into educational practice.

PART I: DEVELOPING ACTIVITIES FOR LEARNING PACKAGES

Types of Learning Package Activities

As previously described, there are two basic types of Learning Package Activities: Resource and Application. Each is designed to meet different requirements. Beyond that primary distinction of purpose, learning package activities can be identified in other ways. The first classification might be:

- Print - readings, essays, documents, newspapers, definitions, answer questions, etc.
- Visual - pictures, models, maps, bulletin boards, cartoons, graphs/charts, transparencies, etc.
- Audio - tapes, guest speakers, oral presentations, debates, discussions, records, etc.
- Combinations - sound slides/filmstrips, films, television, audio-video tapes, magazines, illustrated writings or tapes, etc.
- Active participations - interviews, surveys, discussions, field observations, role-playing, simulations, games, etc.

Before proceeding, one primary distinction between Resource Activities and Application Activities must be made. Resource Activities are generally teacher-prepared, the student completes them to acquire the necessary information for completion of the objectives (i.e. "Read and study the case studies on poverty to determine . . ."; "View the filmstrip The American West. Look for . . ."). Application Activities are generally student-developed (the product) along suggestions and guidelines provided by the teacher; the student does something to practice with the skills and information presented in the Resource Activities. (i.e. Prepare a collage which illustrates the 5 most common causes of poverty."; "Write a 1-3 page essay or story which describes the life style(s) of the average settler(s) in the American West."; or "Write a brief concise answer to the following 5 questions.", etc.)

Another classification of activities would be according to the size of the group involved in the activity. Although designed for individualized instruction, learning packages do not require students to work alone or completely independent of each other. Quite the contrary - one highly desired goal of a particular learning package might be the development of skills and abilities in working with other students in varying group sizes, in which case the optional activities would stress/require student participation in different sized groups. In general, we divide learning groups into the following categories:

Individual - one student works alone and independently.

Paired - Two students plan and work together on an activity.

- Team - approximately 3 - 5 students together.
 Small Group - approximately 6 - 10 students work together.
 Large Group - generally 11 - 30 + do something simultaneously or together. (for films, guest speakers, presentations to entire class, etc.)

Obviously, the nature of the activity and the availability of resources, as well as the objectives will determine the size of the group to be used. Ideally, a learning package would incorporate participation in at least two or more differing groups in pursuit of the activities to both expose students to varied group experiences, and to actively develop student's social and work skills and adjustments of varying types.

Also desirable in planning activities for learning packages is providing students with opportunities to develop and practice skills and abilities in differing types of behavior. We may occasionally want students to be able to memorize and recall or recognize, at other times to analyze or synthesize and produce original works, etc., and at other times to be able to evaluate or make judgements and/or perhaps actively attempt to convince others of their values or life styles. Each of these behaviors (and combinations) demonstrate distinctly differing levels and complexities of behavior. (For further reading and explanation, the reader is referred to Bloom, 1969, Krathwohl, 1969, or (much briefer) Hansen/Guenther, Writing Objectives for Learning Packages, 1976. For complete bibliographic listing, see Appendix B.) Specifically, the level and nature of the objective definitely dictates to some degree the type of activity to be used; and less specifically, the unstated but perhaps desired experiences we wish students to have in the process of their learning will also help determine the nature of the activities provided.

Fundamentally then, there are different types of learning package activities and different ways of classifying them. A good learning package, one which will effectively accomplish its purposes, aids student achievement of objectives, and provides options and alternatives in order to individualize instruction. As such, it should use a variety of types of activities throughout. A more specific list of activities which is not intended to be comprehensive or limiting but merely illustrative of possibilities is shown below.

primary sources
 newspapers
 films/filmstrips
 posters/pictures
 transparencies
 charts/graphs
 pamphlets
 video-tapes
 audio-tapes
 readings/books
 debates/panels

magazines
 maps/globes
 speakers
 interviews
 cartoons/drawings
 artifacts/models
 essays/papers
 collages
 bulletin boards
 simulations/games/
 role-playing

discussions
 questions/answers
 illustrations
 reports/
 demonstrations
 problem-solving
 definitions
 slide-tapes
 outlining/
 summarizing

Criteria for Selecting and Developing Activities

When developing activities for learning packages, several criteria need to be considered in determining what will be included and in what way the activities will be developed. All the criteria may not necessarily be met by every activity, but some consideration should be at least given to each criterion in the planning and development stages to ensure the optimum success of the package.

Initially, before the development of activities, the developer decides upon and delineates the overall desired outcomes of the package, the Primary Idea, Secondary Ideas and Concepts to be taught in the package, and the objectives specifying the expected behaviors and outcomes to be demonstrated by the student as a result of the instruction. (Comprehensive instruction on learning package development is provided by the two works by Guenther and Hansen listed in Appendix B.) The behavioral objectives stating expected student performances and products provide the essential guidelines to the development of the activities and will be discussed more explicitly later. It is mandatory that these objectives be completed and be behaviorally stated since the activities are directly designed to lead to the achievement of those objectives. (Specific self-instruction on preparing objectives can be found in Hansen/Guenther, Writing Objectives for Learning Packages, 1976.)

An early consideration in the development of activities is the determination of what types of learning experiences you want the student to have in the package. Questions you might consider are: What experiences are appropriate to the content of the package; to the process itself? Do you want to provide experiences similar to your regular instruction or can you use the package to provide new and different experiences? Are there some experiences your students need new or additional exposure to? Do they need opportunities to practice skills and in situations beyond what you might normally be able to provide in the regular classroom procedure? Can the package provide opportunities to students to select optional learning experiences they might not otherwise attempt? Generally then, one criterion in developing activities is designing them to help provide the types of learning experiences desired by the developer.

An essential practical consideration, particularly in developing Resource Activities, is the availability and nature of materials to be employed in the package. Teacher-developed learning packages optimally employ the most efficient utilization of materials and resources available to the teacher in the instructional setting. Including activities which require materials or resources which cannot realistically be provided when the package is used are basically meaningless. At the same time, whatever materials and resources are feasibly available, including those in the community, should be considered as possible activities. A related criterion is the appropriateness of the available materials and resources. Materials that are readily available should not be used if they are not appropriate to the objectives or the type of activity planned. Remember too, that in using learning packages the resources used do not have to be available to all students at the same time since self-pacing and student choices will spread the need for resources, and the entire group

can be brought together for activities requiring it (such as rental films, guest speakers and the like). Overall, the activities should be planned with material and resource needs in mind, and the efficient utilization of what is or can be made available. This includes, also, the possibility of teacher-developed materials whenever appropriate or desirable.

In considering the size of the learning group used in an activity, attention should be given to providing some variety, reasonable alternatives and options, and the limitations of time and space. A good package would not require a student to work alone continuously, nor would it demand that an entire class do everything together. Rather, it would provide opportunities for students to work in a variety of learning groups and experience varied learning situations. The group required should be appropriate to the nature of the activity and should enhance the achievement of the activity and the specific behavior it is designed to teach. Rather than discouraging the development of social skills, learning packages can effectively strengthen student skills in a variety of group settings by planning and providing for participation in differing group tasks. When planning the desired outcomes of learning packages, this possible option of learning package **activities** should be kept in mind by the developer. In addition, working in varying group settings can aid student development of skills in group planning, leadership and task assignment for mutual goal achievement.

In planning and developing activities for learning packages, a primary criteria should be the desired level of behavior and the outcome specified by the learning package objectives. Because the activities are designed to aid student achievement of the objectives, they must provide for student practice of both the type and level of behavior and outcome which they will be expected to demonstrate upon completion of the package. A package which has an objective specifying student ability to analyze and evaluate information cannot provide activities which have the student provide only definitions to terms or list factual data. The activities should ask the student to perform the same sort of behavior(s) that will be expected in the final evaluation.

For example:

OBJECTIVE: "The student will be able to evaluate the validity of differing sources of information on the same topic."

RESOURCE
ACTIVITY: "Read and study any two of the following resources, noting the points on which they agree and on which they differ.":

1. Sylvester, A. "The Government Has the Right to Lie."
2. Chandler, O. "Can We Believe Washington?"
3. Ladd, B. "Closing the Gap"
4. Anderson, J. "The Day I Blew the Whistle"

(These articles may be found in the package pocket.)

APPLICATION

ACTIVITY: "Do one of the following activities:"

1. Using the two articles read, construct and complete a chart, table, or visual display showing the specific points on which they agree or differ. Prepare a written analysis in which you respond to the questions listed in Activity 2 below. Share your conclusions with someone who did the same activity.
2. Identify a topic of current public concern. Find a newspaper article which discusses the topic, a radio or television newscast, a newsmagazine article, and interview someone on the ~~same~~ topic. Note similarities and differences in the reports. How do you account for these comparisons? Which information would you consider to be valid? Which invalid? Which is probably factual? Why? Which is probably opinion? Why?

Based on your findings from the activity you chose to do, write out or present orally a statement as to what you feel determines the validity of the conflicting information, and how you would establish that validity. You may also want to discuss the question with one or more friends. List the specific criteria you would use to establish validity of information, and describe the process used in the task.

As the examples illustrate, throughout the learning experience, the student is being asked to analyze and evaluate the validity of the information being considered as the objective specified. Ideally, the activities reinforce the mastery of the specific behavior expected upon completion of the learning package.

A final criterion of learning package activities is perhaps the most important. It is principally through the activities that learning packages provide student options for achievement of the objectives. If we believe that students can learn in different ways and at different rates, activities should be provided which will allow students to make some choices as to their preferred mode of accomplishing the learning task. While some students may prefer to read to obtain needed information, others may choose to study charts, view pictures, listen to tapes, conduct interviews, or use other non-print resources. When given the opportunity, most students will select a variety of learning modes, increasing their sustained interest in the learning task. The same principles apply to students' choices of modes for applying what they have learned (Application Activities). Answering questions or identifying terms are the traditional ways of demonstrating ability; but equally acceptable are leading or participating in group discussions, producing visual displays or presentations, preparing and conducting interviews or surveys, participating in group projects or action-oriented situations, and a wide variety of other activities. Many times the key to developing successful learning packages is in the creativity

and variety of the options of the Resource and Application Activities. In this way the package most effectively provides for individualized instruction and student decision-making. A question the developer might keep in mind when planning activities to meet the objectives would be: "As a student, how many different ways would I like to be able to learn about and work with the skill(s) the objective requires?" In this way, we may avoid the traditional trap of "read, recite and answer questions", and simultaneously increase both student interest and the development of increased skills in both decision-making and varied learning modes.

Relating Activities to Objectives

Essential to the successful development of learning packages is the appropriateness and variety of the activities provided. Another factor is the correlation between the objectives and the activities used to develop the achievement of those objectives. Generally, the more specific and positive the direct correlation between the two components, the more effectively and efficiently the package will meet and achieve its intended outcomes. A package which is carefully and systematically designed and developed to accomplish definite predetermined outcomes is most likely to succeed in that task.

There are fundamentally three phases in the development of the coordination between objectives and activities in learning packages: (1) providing the necessary skills and information for achievement of the objectives, (2) providing opportunities to practice the behavior(s) specified by the objectives, and (3) providing alternative modes for each from which students may make some selections. In learning packages, these are called Resource Activities, Application Activities, and options. The procedure for coordinating each of these components with the objectives is detailed in the following pages.

Resource Activities

Resource Activities are usually teacher-prepared learning experiences provided in or with the package which are designed to lead to the securing of information, skills, etc. necessary to the achievement of the pre-determined objectives. They may be commercially-developed materials, teacher-developed or modifications of existing materials and resources; and optimally should include a wide variety of materials and resources selected perhaps from the categories previously identified:

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| A. Print | C. Combinations |
| B. Non-Print | (of the previous 3) |
| 1. Visual | D. Active Participations |
| 2. Audio | |

(More specific examples for each are given on page 3.)

They should be appropriate to the package objectives, the interests and abilities of the students, and the learning environment and facilities. As much as is possible, the package should be self-contained, although students may be directed to resources outside the package as is necessary or desirable. (For example, for most audio-visual and other non-print materials; and active participations and other special resources like guest speakers, field trips, interviews, films, etc.) Basically, any appropriate resource or activity which provides the student with the means and information necessary to attain the objectives is a potential resource activity. It is important to remember that in doing these activities the student is only gathering information and is not yet expected to do anything with it. A list of examples of Resource Activities follows:

reading from a text or handout
viewing a film, filmstrip
studying charts, graphs, tables
listening to tapes
lectures, demonstrations
observations--field, controlled
using primary sources, relics

conducting an interview
studying a bulletin board,
collage, poster, display
surveying magazines, pictures
studying maps, globes
conducting surveys, opinion-
naires, questionnaires

The most important, in fact imperative, aspect of the procedure of selecting or developing the Resource Activities is the directed coordination of the activities with the behaviors and outcomes specified by the objectives. This does not mean that they must be exactly the same type of material or behavior; but rather that they provide the means and information necessary to the attainment of the objectives. Perhaps some examples will help illustrate this coordination.

For example:

OBJECTIVE: "distinguish between visual and verbal modes of illustrating ideas."

RESOURCE

ACTIVITY: "Select 1 and 2 or 3."

1. Study the pictures and illustrations in Chap. 3, pps. 10-18 of The Family, noticing particularly the differing roles and tasks of the subjects pictured and the characteristics of each, and the manner in which these differences are shown.
2. Read the selection "Family Patterns of Roles and Responsibilities" from Life In Families (included in Section II pocket), noting what is said to describe the roles and tasks of various family members and the characteristics of each, and how it is verbally described. (Trying to form a mental image of the entire scene might be helpful.)

3. Using the same general guidelines as in Activities #1 and 2, ask a friend to describe roles and responsibilities of the members of his family. Then, visit and observe the family members yourself. Note any inconsistencies between the two experiences and consider which you felt was most valid; most clearly explanatory; most vividly descriptive; most easily understood and systematically analyzed.

The potential activities could continue for several pages (observe a pantomime, view a film, listen to a tape of a family meal, read a short story, etc.), but the principle that the information necessary to being able to distinguish between the two forms of illustration can be validly obtained in a variety of interesting, non-narrative forms is demonstrated. The activities all specifically lead to the skills needed for achievement of the behavior and outcome dictated by the objective, while concurrently providing the student with a variety of learning experiences and options from which to select those experiences to meet personal needs, abilities and interests. Again, the key elements are developer creativity and flexibility, and the ability to plan a variety of learning experiences that validly and reliably teach the same behavior. The developer's control over the student's attending to the expected behavior is maintained by the parameters set in the directions for or description of each activity.

Perhaps a helpful guideline is to remind the developer of the multiple ways we daily employ our different senses and behaviors to obtain information about our total environment and the specific needs of the tasks we wish to accomplish. (Example: The myriad of methods we use as teachers to obtain information about our students! It certainly includes considerably more than just reading the work they submit for our evaluation.) This might help us expand our conceptual constraints about how students can gain information and skills.

NOTE: There does not have to be one Resource Activity for each objective, as several activities can develop multiple objectives. Each objective, however, must be provided for or developed by at least one activity to be done by each student. When providing options, the alternative activities must each provide for the intended objectives to ensure that all of the alternatives are equally valid. The procedure for checking this coordination will be described after the discussion of Application Activity development.

Application Activities

In developing learning packages, Application Activities are just what they would seem to be: learning experiences which provide the student with the opportunity to apply or use the information/skills obtained in a meaningful way directly related to the behaviors and outcomes stipulated by the objectives.

In Application Activities, the student is asked to do something with the information or skills gained in the Resource Activities in such a way that the learner is practicing the actual behavior and dealing with the same outcome that is required by the objective(s). A product or an observable behavior is expected to result from the activity which will closely correlate with the behavior(s) and outcome(s) stated in the objectives.

In contrast to Resource Activities which are generally teacher provided, Application Activities describe a student task that requires student production in some form. These tasks may range from answering simple study questions and defining terms to investigating or analyzing an issue or topic, and formulating and developing a substantiated, elaborate evaluation or judgement in some observable manner. The nature and complexity of the Application Activity is determined by both the creativeness of the teacher and the student, and the type and level of behavior specified by the objective. Some sample activities at varying performance levels might include:

finding and captioning pictures
drawing illustrative cartoons
writing a mythical diary
writing an essay
giving a dramatic presentation

leading a group discussion
conducting a debate
constructing a model
constructing a chart, graph
writing an editorial

Of course, there are almost infinite possibilities as to suggested activities that students may do to demonstrate ability with objectives. The purpose here is to illustrate the possibility of using variety in student options that can accomplish the same goal in equally valid ways.

There are some guidelines to be followed in the development and selection of Application Activities. They would be:

1. To provide options to students -- in mode, level of difficulty, group involved, skill(s) required, etc.
2. Appropriateness -- to materials and facilities available; to student development, needs and interests; to Resource Activities completed; to package primary ideas, concepts, and content; to learning environment; and to desired outcomes of the package itself.
3. Relationship to the achievement of Objectives -- As discussed with the Resource Activities, the Application Activities must provide the student with the opportunity to practice the knowledge and abilities specified by the package objectives. The activities must

provide practice of the same type and at the same level of behavior required by the objective.

An appropriate example might help to illustrate the principles of developing Application Activities.

For example: (continued from page 9)

OBJECTIVE: "Distinguish between visual and verbal modes of illustrating ideas."

APPLICATION

ACTIVITIES: "Select one from #1 - 4"

1. Identify an idea or concept which could be illustrated effectively. Using current magazines and newspapers, collect several visual and verbal examples which effectively illustrate the concept. Prepare them for display in some way that demonstrates the differences between the visual and verbal modes of illustration.
2. (Somewhat more complex) Do the same as in Act. #1. Instead of, or in addition to, the presentation of the display, do a written or oral analysis of the specific differences between visual and verbal illustration. If you desire, based on your studies and analysis, determine when and for what reasons each mode of illustration is more effective and/or more desirable; also, when a combination of both might be most desirable.
3. Following the same guidelines as for Act. #1 & 2, do an original visual and verbal illustration of an idea. It may use any media you choose: cartoons, drawings, pictures, film, audio-visual tape, writing, tape, etc. For technical assistance see your teacher, your school's audio-visual specialist, or someone from the art department. You may also want to do this activity with one or more friends who are interested in the same activity.
4. Using the same guidelines as in Act. #1 & 2, do the same task using an analysis of modern technological media (film, television, etc.), paying particular attention to the special ability of these modern media to incorporate both modes of illustration more effectively than other types of media. In your analysis, include a discussion of what this study tells you about the power of modern advertising.

As is hopefully illustrated by these multiple examples, the same behavior ("to discriminate") and outcome ("visual and verbal modes of illustration") can be practiced effectively in a variety of ways and at differing levels of complexity. This is the optimal use of Application Activities--helping students experience options and alternatives in learning tasks that are equally appropriate to the objective, develop skills in those varied modes of demonstrating ability, and practice decision-making and intelligent choices affecting their own personal learning program.

An additional, absolutely imperative criterion in the development of Application Activities (as in Resource Activities) is the stating of clear, understandable directions to the student which are as restrictive as necessary but not so restrictive as to inhibit the student's individual creativity. The directions must outline the required task and set the acceptable parameters of performance, but not totally dictate the manner and method of task accomplishment.

Lastly, the question arises as to the use of the Application Activities in learning packages. In general, this will vary according to the purposes and design of the package, and even moreso according to the desires and purposes of the individual teacher who is using the package. Basically, this may range from assigning a specific point total to each activity and requiring a minimum point total to be accumulated by each student, to letting students freely pick and choose from among all the activities and assigning no credit points and using no means of evaluation or assessment to the completion of the activities. Whatever mode is chosen, the developer may choose to at least indicate some point designations for the different activities and some means of evaluation in the Teacher's Guide to the package, with the explanation that this is a teacher option. If evaluation and credit are chosen by the teacher (or perhaps this could be a student option also), the form "Learning Package Record Form" on p. 40 of Developing Learning Activity Packages to Individualize Instruction (Hansen/Guenther, 1975) may be helpful.

In general then, there are several factors which affect systematically relating learning package activities to package objectives. All these factors should be taken into consideration when developing learning package activities to optimally develop student achievement of the desired objectives as specified. A form which is helpful in determining the existence of this relationship between objectives and activities is the "Objectives/Activities Checklist" found on p. 14. The meaningful, systematic development of Resource and Application Activities which do achieve their intended purpose and function is a difficult task at best; but one which when carefully and purposefully done will result in a learning package which in reality achieves the goals and purposes for which it is intended and which systematically operationalizes the benefits of sound instructional planning and classroom management.

The Mechanics of Writing Activities

The final step in developing learning package activities is the actual writing of the activities in the form to be used in the package. Here too,

Name _____

LEARNING PACKAGES OBJECTIVES/ACTIVITIES CHECK LIST

		Resource Activities					Application Activities							
Sec. Idea		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Objective	1													
	2													
	3													
	4													
	5													
	6													
	7													

Sec. Idea														
Objective	1													
	2													
	3													
	4													
	5													
	6													
	7													

Sec. Idea														
Objective	1													
	2													
	3													
	4													
	5													
	6													
	7													

variations will be expected from package to package, but a few basic guidelines may be helpful. In general, each activity should include the following:

1. A statement and description of the task.

What is to be done or accomplished by the learner in order to complete that activity.

2. A specification of the resources to be used.

A listing or description of the materials or resources to be used in completion of the task; and, when appropriate, where they are to be obtained.

3. A specification of the outcome of the task.

In Resource Activities, perhaps things that should be observed, studied, etc. in working with the resources. In Application Activities, the product that should result from completion of that activity--either a project, etc. or some observable behavior on the part of the learner.

4. Directions or guidelines.

Specific instructions which tell the student how to do the activity specified. This would also include any special requirements or needs of the activity, special criterion to meet, special circumstances, etc. that might affect completion of the activity.

5. Identification of options within the activity or between activities.

Alternate ways of doing the activity, alternate resources, variable products that may result, different group sizes that might be used, etc. Any part(s) of the activity that the student may decide or design.

6. A Statement of what should be done upon completion.

Directions as to what the student should do when the activity has been completed, i.e. proceed to the next activity, consult the teacher, turn the product in for credit, put materials into a folder, present to a group, followed by something else, additional options, refer to another section or activity, evaluation in a particular way, etc.

Attention to these guidelines and provision of those that apply to each activity will help ensure that the activities clearly communicate your expectations to the students and will facilitate student self-pacing and learning independence--the two principle goals of the individualized program of learning packages.

PART II

IMPLEMENTING CONTEMPORARY STRATEGIES IN LEARNING PACKAGES

The potential flexibility of learning package activities enables the use of a variety of teaching methods and strategies in the development of the package activities. This allows the developer to use the package to provide students with opportunities for a variety of learning experiences in a variety of learning settings. The second part of this manual will present several of the more contemporary educational strategies and approaches. Each will be briefly described, its suggested use(s) outlined, and its application in learning packages discussed. The hope is that teachers developing learning packages will be encouraged to utilize these approaches and strategies in the preparation of the Resource and Application Activities for their packages and in their planning of general classroom experiences as well.

METHODS AND APPROACHES

Concept Teaching

The term concept may be applied to a class or group of objects, occurrences, situations and/or ideas which have certain qualities or characteristics in common. Such a group is named or labeled in reference to the common factor, ignoring the details in which the object, the situation, or the idea differ.

Although all concepts serve to organize experiences and information, there are generally two aspects of concept application. First, it applies as a classification or discrimination device as the person recognizes what events or objects the concept applies to. Secondly, it is a set of associations. Once a thing has been classified, we attach to it many associations about the class. The moment that we are able to classify an object, event, or situation, we have a basis for thinking about it and extending its meaning.

Having examined the work of Gagne, Guilford, Piaget, and Klausmeier, Dorothy Frayer has suggested that an act of concept learning involves the following seven processes.

1. Knowledge of the characteristics of concept examples.
2. Association of attribute values with their labels.
3. Knowledge of an instance as an example or nonexample of the concept.
4. Association of a concept example with its label.
5. Knowledge of the characteristics common to all concept examples.

6. Knowledge of the conceptual rule relating the common characteristics.
7. Knowledge of the relationship between the concept and concepts subordinate and supraordinate to it. (Frayer, 1970)

Social studies teachers may engage in at least three different types of concept-teaching. Sometimes concept-teaching merely requires helping students conceptualize about whatever it is that concerns them, or that develops naturally from a given body of content. At other times, concept-teaching may mean helping students refine, fill out or perhaps broaden a general image they already have of a concept. Finally, concept-teaching may involve putting students into learning situations where they can come into contact with dimensions or facets of a concept they might not otherwise develop well on their own. The stages or steps in this process are illustrated by Figures 1 and 2 following.

Figure 1
DE CECCO'S MODEL

Steps in Concept Teaching

- Step 1. Describe the performance expected of the student after he has learned the concept.
 - Step 2. Reduce the number of attributes to be learned in complex concepts and make important attributes dominant.
 - Step 3. Provide the student with clear verbal associations.
 - Step 4. Provide positive and negative examples of the concept.
 - Step 5. Present the examples in close succession or simultaneously.
 - Step 6. Present a new positive example of the concept and ask the student to identify it.
 - Step 7. Verify the student's learning of the concept.
 - Step 8. Require the student to define the concept.
 - Step 9. Provide occasions for student responses and the reinforcement of these responses.
-

(De Cecco, 1968)

Figure 2
TABA'S MODEL

Concept Formation		
Overt Activity	Covert Mental Operation	Eliciting Question
1. Enumeration and listing	Differentiation	What did you see? hear? note?
2. Grouping	Identifying common properties; abstracting	What belongs together?
3. Labeling, categorizing, subsuming	Determining the hierarchical order of items. Super- and sub-ordination	On what criterion? How would you call these groups? What belongs under what?
Interpretation of Data		
Overt Activity	Covert Mental Operation	Eliciting Question
1. Identifying points	Differentiation	What did you note? see? find?
2. Explaining items of identified information	Relating points to each other. Determining cause and effect relationships	Why did so-and-so happen?
3. Making inferences	Going beyond what is given. Finding implications, extrapolating	What does this mean? What picture does it create in your mind? What would you conclude?
Application of Principles		
Overt Activity	Covert Mental Operation	Eliciting Question
1. Predicting consequences. Explaining unfamiliar phenomena. Hypothesizing	Analyzing the nature of the problem or situation. Retrieving relevant knowledge	What would happen if . . . ?
2. Explaining, supporting the predictions and hypotheses	Determining the causal links leading to prediction or hypothesis	Why do you think this would happen?
3. Verifying the prediction	Using logical principles of factual knowledge to determine necessary and sufficient conditions	What would it take for so-and-so to be true or probably true?

(Taba, 1971)

Unfortunately, the process of concept development is often slow. Not only must students first be introduced to a concept, but they must then have the opportunity to use this concept to analyze and reflect upon additional information and experiences. A variety of educational techniques, including simulation, case studies, and role-playing are designed to enable the student to formulate and use their own concepts.

In learning packages, concepts can be systematically taught through a process of gradual development in the sequential steps of the learning package. Once identified by the developer at the initial stages of planning, the critical concepts of the package can be introduced to the student at the beginning of the package, the initial mental constructs established in the Resource Activities, and the students given opportunities to use these concepts to analyze and reflect upon additional information and experiences in the Application Activities. In the selection and planning of both type of activities, the developer can provide for a variety of experiences in which the students may work with the concept(s) in meaningful ways, thus enhancing their mastery of them. Additionally, a previously-learned concept can be reviewed and reinforced throughout additional activities of later sections of the package and in the self-check(s) and Quest activities.

Inquiry, Problem-Solving and Discovery Methods

The most commonly-used terms in the new social studies are inquiry, discovery, and problem solving. Each represents an overall approach to learning - a general attitude, a process, and a way of life in which the learner is the active agent in discovering concepts, generalizations, and truths.

Edwin Fenton, a leading proponent of the Inquiry method, defines it in the following manner:

"Inquiry is a process by which students, social scientists, and historians interpret the past and investigate both personal problems and contemporary issues." (Fenton, 1966)

There is some controversy among educators as to whether these three techniques are individual methods of learning, or simply three names for basically the same approach. The interchangeable use of the terms by writers suggests that the three are basically the same process, although it is also apparent that the terms are different in relation to each other. As Bruner states:

"It is evident then that if children are to learn the working techniques of discovery, they must be afforded the opportunities of problem solving. The more they practice problem solving, the more likely they are to generalize what they learn into a style

of inquiry that serves for any kind of task they may encounter. It is doubtful that anyone ever improves in the art and technique of inquiry by any other means than engaging in inquiry or problem solving." (Bruner, 1962)

Therefore, opportunities for problem solving facilitate the task of developing techniques of discovery and style of inquiry.

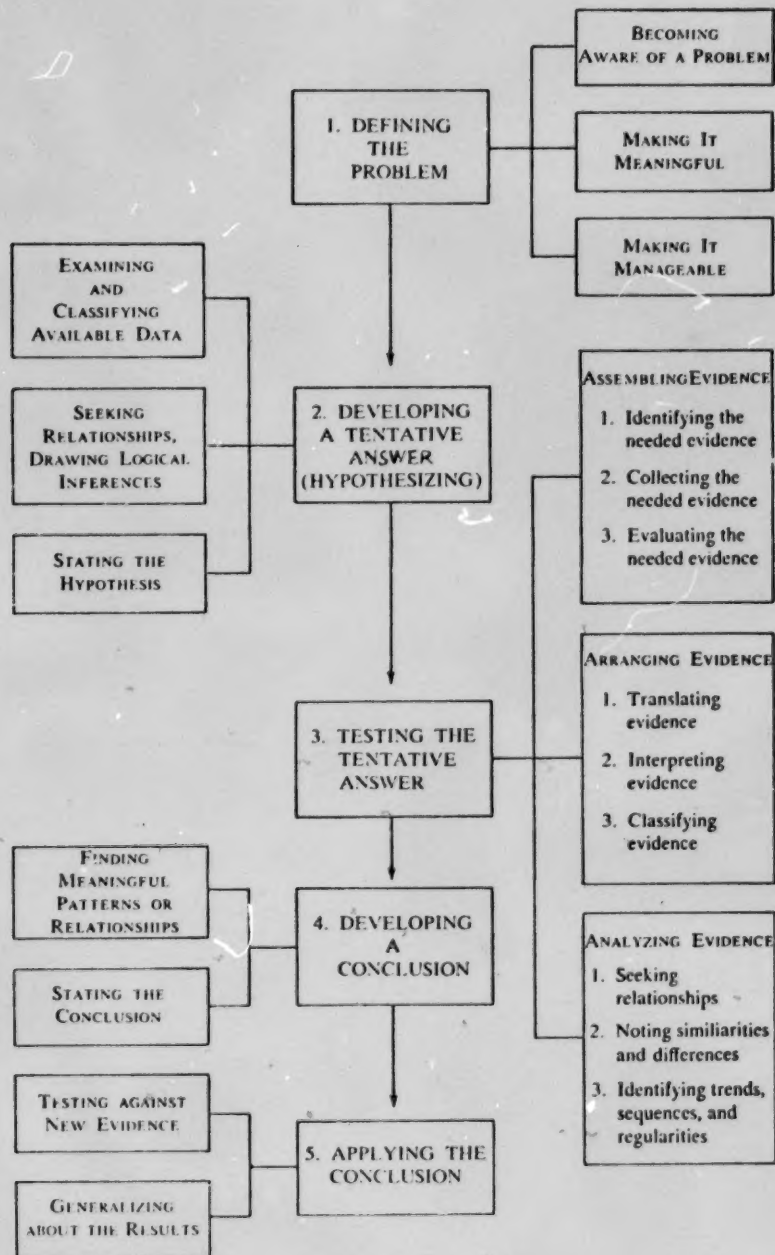
All three approaches are based on the premise that teachers function to assist or guide the students in their search for ideas. Students are encouraged to probe, to inquire, to search and to think. Increased emphasis is on the problems that are relevant to the learner.

Inquiry, problem-solving and discovery approaches are used to develop student skills in critical thinking and issues analysis, and in classroom use are normally combined with other methods and strategies used in conjunction with the inquiry method as the means of developing inquiry skills. The principle steps in the inquiry process are shown below, and the planning and conduct of the teaching task are organized around the practice of these steps. Refer to the following page. (Figure 3)

- Step 1: Defining the Problem
- Step 2: Developing a Tentative Answer
- Step 3: Testing the Hypothesis
- Step 4: Developing a Conclusion
- Step 5: Applying the Conclusion

THE PROCESS OF INQUIRING

Figure 3



(Beyer, 1971)

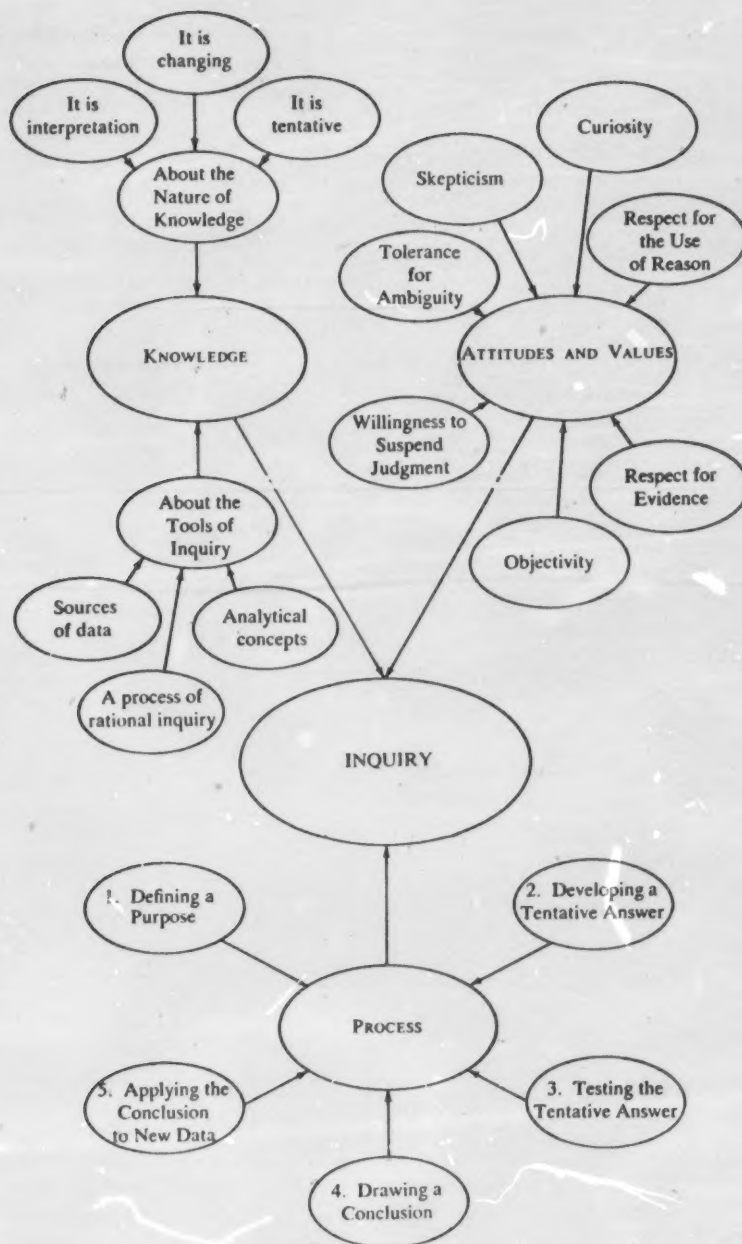
In the classroom then, learning experiences are designed to encourage the development and practice of inquiry processes.

In learning packages, the same skills and processes may be incorporated into the Resource and Application Activities. For example, the identifying and defining of the problem and establishing its relevancy can be effectively managed by the posing of the right questions and provocative information in the introductory portions of the package. In completing the Resource Activities, the student can be provided with sufficient opportunities not only to examine, collect and classify pertinent data with which to develop hypotheses; but can also exercise judgement and creativity in the selection of the form and method by which he collects that data when provided with options from which to choose. At this stage, and throughout a skillfully developed learning package, the student not only learns and practices inquiry skills, but also develops skill in making judgements and meaningful decisions based upon those judgements.

To complete the example, in doing both the Resource and Application activities the student can be provided with experiences in: 1) assembling, arranging and analyzing evidence to test the hypothesis(es), 2) finding patterns and relationships and stating conclusions, and 3) testing the conclusion against new evidence and generalizing about the results; all critical steps in the inquiry process.

Additionally, creative and purposeful learning package activities development by perceptive, imaginative educators can systematically provide for the inclusion of the three essential dimensions of inquiry: Knowledge, Attitudes and Values, and Process as illustrated in Figure 4: "A Concept of Inquiry". By providing materials and activities which attend to both knowledge and attitudes and values as well as providing the means for the inquiry process, the package developer can skillfully provide students with all the necessary tools for inquiry learning and can more successfully guide that development.

A CONCEPT OF INQUIRY
Figure 4



(Beyer, 1971)

As in classroom teaching, the effectiveness of the individual educator in the implementation of inquiry, problem-solving, and discovery methods in learning packages is most determined by the teaching skill of the individuals and their ability to creatively and systematically plan and design coordinated learning experiences which aid student development in desired skills. However, once the process is understood and perceived in terms of potential learning experiences, the task of designing those activities is more a matter of purposeful planning and development than of "brilliant" teaching and creativity - a skill which, with practice, can, and should be, developed by every teacher.

Discussion Method

For many of us, the use of discussion may very well be the primary method of learning within the average classroom. Unfortunately, we often consider discussion as something that happens in a natural sort of way, with little consideration for its methods or procedures. Because of this, many of us do not obtain optimum value from our in-class discussion groups.

In its simplest form, discussion is organized purposeful conversation, complete with a definite structure. Discussion helps the student to develop and share ideas within the class setting, with the emphasis on active student involvement. An interchange of ideas stimulates interaction in such a way that something extra is generated - something more than the sum of the thinking of its members.

Two general purposes of discussion are policy making or planning for immediate action based on accepted values, and learning or resolving value conflicts for deferred action. These purposes function in almost every group situation, at all levels of maturity. The kind and amount of discussion will depend upon the many variables; among them, the purpose of the discussion, the nature of the problem, the amount of basic information on the problem which the participants have, the emotional reaction to the problem, and the age and experience of the discussants.

It is commonly conceded that good group thinking follows the same general pattern as good individual thinking. John Dewey analyzed the thought process and broke it down into five steps, sometimes known as the scientific method or the process of "straight thinking." They are:

1. A felt difficulty, a recognized problem
2. Location, definition, and analysis of the problem
3. Suggestion of possible solutions
4. Development, by reasoning, of the consequences of the solution
5. Further observation and experimentation (Dewey, 1933)

(See Figure 5: Discussion Format)

DISCUSSION FORMAT

Figure 5

STEPS & GUIDELINES

EXAMPLES

Step 1 - Problem Identification

Establish "felt need"
Teacher and student developed.
Related to current issues,
life application

Wording; point up
crucial issues involved;
Avoid misleading set.

Frame as policy issues--
pre-exploration and analysis.

"What should be U. S. trade policy
with Communist China?"

"How can we best apply Thomas
Jefferson's ideals of democracy to
today's democracy?"

"What factors should be considered
in mate selection and establishing
family life?"

Step 2 - Problem Analysis

Introduce and Evaluate
various components of
problem

On Continuum:
definition of important
terms to inspection of
important facts and circum-
stances associated with
problem.

Examine seriousness of
problem.

Problem: "What steps should be
taken to minimize the use of LSD
among teenagers?"

1. What is LSD?
2. How widespread is its use
among teenagers?
3. What are its effects?

4. What evidence indicates the
problem is likely to persist?
Are there evidences to the
contrary?

Step 3 - Establishing Hypotheses

Present possibilities for
solving problem.

"idea generation" phase --
students invited to offer
possibilities

Techniques: brainstorming,
small groups, task forcing

"What should be done?"

"What are all the possible ways to
solve the problem?"

"What would different groups or
individuals recommend be done?"

Step 4 - Testing Ideas

Evaluate proposals

Brief analysis of advantages and disadvantages of each.

Develop set of criteria or standards for evaluation.

Consider from as many angles or perspectives as possible.

May need to set priorities.

"What are the questions related to the proposed alternatives?"

"What are the advantages and disadvantages of each proposal?"

"What criteria must be considered when examining and judging proposals?"

"What are national or societal needs or standards? What humanistic considerations need to be made? What individual rights need to be weighed? How does it relate to other problems, needs, values? What consequences might it have on other situations, policies, needs, etc.?" How realistically practical is it?, etc."

"Which criteria or considerations are most important in making a judgement?"

"Which are least important?"

"Which are most reasonable/feasible?"

"How significant are the costs vs. benefits? Effects vs. results?"

Step 5 - Deriving Generalizations

Two possibilities:

- 1) Definite plan of Action-decisions relative to preferred courses of action.

"What should be done to actively promote selected proposal(s)?"

"How carry out the decision on the alternative solutions?" How handle negative aspects or disadvantages?"

- 2) Emergent Generalizations.

"What statements can be made about the problem?"

"What conclusions can be drawn in relationship to the problem? possible solutions?"

No discussion need adhere to these steps in precise order, but they are excellent guideposts by which to check the "straightness" of the group's thinking.

Although in the classroom setting we normally perceive the use of the discussion method to include the entire class (generally 20-30 students), it's possible that the most effective discussions are in smaller groups of 5 - 8 participants and that larger group discussions are generally ineffective and non-productive. The problem, of course, is that in most typical classrooms group discussions of 5 - 8 students are impractical if not actually impossible due to the problems of management and logistics, particularly on a continuing basis.

Correspondingly, because of their individualized and self-pacing nature, educators tend to assume that discussion is not a viable alternative as an activity in learning packages. Quite to the contrary however, properly developed and skillfully managed, learning packages can provide the ideal setting for utilizing effective discussion methodology. Just as learning packages are not designed to have all students in a class doing the same thing at the same time, they are also not designed to require students to work alone and independently at all times. Because learning packages are designed to serve as instructional management systems, their effective development and use enables the teacher to provide a wide variety of learning experiences to large numbers of students simultaneously. Since the package itself provides the basic directions and materials as the teacher has planned them, the teacher is freed to devote time and energies to the management of the package, the students and the activities. In this way then, the activities can provide learning experiences in varying group sizes as is most appropriate and/or desirable to best accomplish tasks and develop student skills.

Because of this additional flexibility, a potential activity in learning packages is the conduct of small group discussions between students who have acquired the necessary resources for the discussion, simply by coordinating the activity between themselves through the teacher. In this way, the teacher can help schedule and prepare for the discussion and either lead, monitor or simply observe the discussion as is most appropriate. Additionally, the teacher, the students themselves, or other students can evaluate the discussion and the participants if desired. The key to incorporating the discussion method successfully in a learning package is careful planning and package directions that assist the teacher and students in the successful organization and management of the completion of the activity.

Interdisciplinary Approach

In and across all areas of the curriculum, probably the most sensible, yet most frequently neglected approach to the planning and organizing of learning experiences is the interdisciplinary method.

The interdisciplinary approach can be most easily described as the systematic integration of the knowledge, concepts, principles, and processes of the multiple disciplines which constitute a field of study. For example, the social studies includes the specific disciplines of history, political science, anthropology, geography, psychology, sociology, economics and sometimes philosophy and religion. In language arts one could identify vocabulary, grammar (or syntax), composition, speech and dramatics, journalism, and literature. Each area of the curriculum can be correspondingly subdivided into areas of content and basic skills considered essential to the field. The interdisciplinary approach, rather than treating each discipline separately from the others, recognizes the complex interrelationships existing between each of the disciplines and attempts to organize learning experiences around the investigation of the separate areas simultaneously while focusing on the interrelationships between them. An example of this approach in the social studies would be a course of study (or series of learning experiences) organized around an historical era ("The Twenties"), a theme or concept ("Revolution"), an issue ("Alienation: Individual or Social Problem?") etc. which is then investigated in terms of the aspects of all of the separate disciplines regarding their relationship to the topic and their interrelationships regarding the topic. The methodology is not to treat each discipline or skill separately as an independent unit, but to deal with them in an integrative manner emphasizing how they work together to achieve more comprehensive understanding of the totality of knowledge and values.

In learning packages, the interdisciplinary approach is used in fundamentally the same manner as it is in the planning of typical classroom experiences. In the identification of primary and secondary ideas, basic concepts; the selection and design of resource materials and activities; and the development of application activities; the developer integrates data, concepts, skills and methodology of the multiple disciplines as they bear upon the content and process of the package. Emphasis is placed upon the student's development of an awareness and understanding of the interrelationship between the disciplines as they relate to the topic or skills of the package and of knowledge in general.

Thematic Approach

The thematic approach to teaching is somewhat similar to the interdisciplinary approach in that units of learning experiences are not organized around separate disciplines as is traditionally done. Rather, they are organized around a central theme or idea which serves as the focal point of the learning experiences. Some examples might be Minorities and Ethnic Studies, America At War, Families Across Cultures, Popular Culture Across the Ages, American Fads and Fun, and so

forth. Thematic units cut across cultures, chronological eras, political developments or trends, and concentrate on the investigation into a central theme as it appears and develops throughout successive generations and societies. In this manner, students are exposed to varied resources, concepts and data, modes of behavior and development, etc. in an attempt to develop their ability to make comparisons, identify trends, and draw conclusions about alternatives in human behavior. Usually, the interdisciplinary approach is incorporated into the thematic approach, coupled with a variety of other strategies and materials designed to inquire into the theme in as many ways as is feasibly possible.

As with the other methodologies, the thematic approach is readily incorporated into the learning package model and process. As before, and similarly in classroom planning and teaching, the thematic approach is accomplished in learning packages through the coordinated development of the theme in the materials, resource activities and application activities along the same lines as the interdisciplinary approach.

SPECIAL MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

Case Studies

Although case studies are also frequently classified under strategies because they generally require special techniques for successful use, they are placed with materials and resources here because they principally are based upon a unique approach to obtaining information and dealing with it. The case study itself is the essential resource, and the strategy is the procedure used to effectively use it. Both the resource itself and the basic strategies used will be described.

A case study is a description of a situation or problem with enough background to set the stage and enough personal dialogue or data to allow a student to identify with the situation. Cases may be accompanied by a variety of materials, and are generally used for elaborative thinking, critical analysis, and discussion. Time requirements may range from one to several class sessions.

Available cases are varied in content and concern. The settings are fictionalized so student solutions are not based on "real" situations, but instead can be evolved from their own methods of problem solving. A case study is particularly useful in that it presents a situation adaptable to student-directed interaction and discussion, one which often produces an aspect of reality which results in personal involvement.

A good case is intrinsically interesting: it involves conflict and decision, and it may tell a story. Students may identify with one or more of the characters, make value judgements as they read, take sides, and generally come closer to the real world of political,

economic or social behavior. A good case recreates the reality of a process and it provides descriptive material for analysis. From this analysis comes the information needed for the building of generalizations and the reality against which to test these general hypotheses.

In using case studies in the classroom (and in learning packages) there are a few simple guidelines to be followed for optimum success. Because case studies are used primarily as a method for directly involving students in the process of human behavior and decision-making, the role of the teacher is altered from the traditional expository mode. This role is to prepare the case for analysis, to act as a member of the group delegated to provoke reflective thinking, and to help students (by his own contributions and questions) to examine points of major comparison. In the role of discussion leader, the teacher will occasionally put forth ideas of his own, but will avoid dominating the discussion. Additionally, the following brief suggestions may prove helpful:

1. Use Cases Wisely - When they make sense in terms of what you and your students are doing.
2. Be Prepared - Be thoroughly familiar with the case and know more about the background of the case than is presented in it. Also be thoroughly prepared with a carefully devised framework for discussion which will help students to overcome their tendency toward dependency on factual information and lead them into questioning, hypothesizing and evaluating information at higher cognitive levels.
3. Be Flexible - Avoid dictating adherence to the factual context of the case and prescribed conclusions and interpretations. The discussion should lead into questions of "why?" and "Did it have to be this way", etc. which challenge students to consider causes, alternatives, and valid defense of interpretations and conclusions.
4. Ask Few Questions - The ideal is to initiate and sustain interaction among the students themselves. Keep the discussion moving toward meaningful goals with minimum interference.
5. Use the Blackboard - (or Overhead Projector) as a means for keeping the key elements of the discussion before the class and simultaneously checking the direction of the discussion in order to know when to most effectively intervene.
6. Summarize - Retrace the movement and key elements of the discussion upon completion of each case discussion.

7. Provide Other Material - This may be additional relevant information on the case when especially pertinent, additional sources for students to check, or supplements for students to refer to when needed or desirable. (Tedesco, 1974)

Although case studies are designed more to promote student experience with involvement in factual analysis and value judgements as a means of information collection and decision-making rather than to convey large amounts of information, they can be effectively used as both resource and application activities in learning packages. As a resource, students would both gather data and formulate and pose answers to the essential questions involved in the case; and as application activities students would discuss and/or analyze the data, identify and make value judgements, and participate in decision-making based on their learning experiences.

The same principles of selection and use of the cases would be followed as outlined above with whatever modifications may be necessary to management demands of the learning situation. Case studies are an interesting resource and strategy when appropriate to the context and process of a learning package, and when used effectively as a learning experience. This requires careful selection, planning and development and can provide variety and options to a well-developed package. (For further assistance, see the readings included in Appendix A and the suggested resources in Appendix B.)

Popular Culture

During the past few years an educational change has been taking place in the classroom. It involves not only the attitudes of students toward the educational process, but also of most people concerned with the business of education - students, teachers, and administrators. Questions are being raised concerning what is being taught, why it is being taught, and its effect on teaching. Much of this new awareness can be traced to an understanding of the popular culture explosion going on around us.

Popular Culture may be defined as all those elements of our life, disseminated mainly but not necessarily through the mass media, which have any impact on the elements of our lives common to a large group of us. For example, subjects such as pop music, photography, film-making and science fiction all have a tremendous effect on our society, and are, therefore, being considered legitimate areas of study. Traditionally, subjects along these lines have had little impact on subjects defined as "important." (i.e. math, American history, etc.)

The purpose of using Popular Culture as a teaching tool is probably one of relevancy and demand. If the classroom is to become a forum for examining the issues and problems of contemporary society, then the expressions of society must also be examined.

There are a number of ways in which subjects centered on popular culture can be brought into the classroom. In some cases entire courses or minicourses are developed around an aspect of popular culture.

In other instances, some courses include a special unit or mini-unit dealing with some aspect of popular culture, and occasionally it is dealt with on a sporadic basis over a longer period of time. A more frequent alternative involves various options designed for the individual learner centering on popular culture such as special projects, independent study and oral reports.

Another viable alternative in the use of popular culture in the classroom is not to study it as an independent content or subject area, but rather to use popular culture as the media for investigating another topic such as an historical period ("The Civil War"), a theme ("The Future"), a specific concept ("War"), or an issue or problem ("Dissent"), etc. In this mode, by examining and analyzing selected examples of popular culture which serve to illustrate the topic or idea using the inquiry or discovery process, students are able to discover the conceptual and affective aspects of the topic in a refreshing new and unique way. Without being a media specialist, and while operating within a generally severely limited budget, the individual classroom teacher can provide a wide variety of learning experiences with multiple types of media, many of which can be inexpensively collected and produced for classroom use (for example: newspapers; magazine articles, ads and pictures, etc.; posters; filmstrips; books and pamphlets; commercial films; records and song lyrics; etc.) by the resourceful and sometimes creative teacher.

In planning for and preparing learning package activities, the use of popular culture provides one of the most exciting and interesting approaches to providing varied learning experiences and student options possible. A fundamental principle in the development of learning package activities is that they should attempt to utilize a wide variety of both types and sources of resource materials and opportunities for alternate modes of applying the skills and content of the package. By drawing upon popular culture and mass media, learning package activities can provide a range of optional experiences and materials to sufficiently arouse the interest of even the most apathetic students. Learning packages do not and should not rely solely upon print materials that end up being the same old expository, textbook-centered approach simply wrapped in a different outer container or organized in a slightly different pattern. As with the incorporation of other methods and materials, the principle consideration in utilizing popular culture in learning packages is the careful, deliberate planning and preparation of activities which do aid in student achievement of the objectives, and are both appropriate and closely related to the desired outcomes and purposes of the package, the students, and the learning situation. With purposeful planning and organization of the potential resources, and clearly understandable directions to the student, the final teacher task becomes that of manager and facilitator of the packages, students, resources, and facilities for maximum efficiency and effectiveness.

Newspapers and Magazines

Perhaps the most readily available, timely and inexpensive [and yet, most frequently overlooked or under-used] resource available to educators is the newspaper. Also in the same general classification of materials is the periodical magazine. Both are extraordinarily valuable resources when systematically integrated into the planning and implementation of learning experiences. Information from virtually any curricular area and any specific discipline is regularly available in newspapers and current periodicals, and this information can be made easily accessible to students with some simple planning and effective management.

Specific strategies for dealing with newspapers and periodicals are so numerous and variant, and the skills which they can be used to teach so diverse, that the reader is referred to Guenther, The Newspaper In the Curriculum for numerous specific suggestions and techniques rather than even attempt to survey them here. In developing activities for learning packages, newspapers, newspaper clippings and current magazine articles are effectively used as both resource activities and as application activities depending upon how they are used. They may be either provided in or with the package by the developer or teacher, or the student may be directed to use them in certain ways by locating information, etc. in papers and magazines outside the package which are even more current and "timely". As with popular media, this resource requires careful advance planning and development and clear, precise student directions; as well as continuous revising and updating of resources and activities as is essential to the currentness of the package itself.

Teacher-Student Produced Media

For many teachers and school districts, the lack of educational hardware or media is a severe limitation in creating an optimum learning situation. There are, however, a number of materials within a classroom that may be produced by either teacher or students such as color slides, filmstrips, transparencies and a host of others. Such materials offer a variety of advantages including little or no cost, the creation of materials for subjects where none are available, and the development of materials for a particular purpose.

In addition to teacher-produced materials, increased emphasis is being given to those which are student-designed. Besides the obvious advantages of having additional materials with which to work, the latent benefits focus upon the individual learner. Materials which are student-developed allow the individuals to take an active part in their own learning experience--an experience considerably different from the child's role as a passive learner. Many subjects once considered boring can be drastically altered by allowing students to take an active part in the production of media.

Additional benefits of student-produced media include:

1. the stimulation of interest in a topic, unit, or event.
2. the likelihood that students will investigate a topic in greater depth, thereby leading to greater insights.
3. an effective summation or "pulling together" of a variety of concepts in a unit.
4. increased peer recognition for a successful project.
5. increased student insights into the development and organization of units.
6. an opportunity for a challenging experience for the exceptionally talented student.
7. the opportunity for students with abilities in other areas to apply those skills within the framework of another discipline.
8. an opportunity and reinforcement for the development of ability in creative thinking and manipulative production of an original product.
9. an opportunity for multi-sensory "hands-on" learning experiences which serve to enhance intellectual development.
10. an opportunity for paired, team or small group planning and production of a cooperative project in which social and group behavior and leadership skills can be learned and practiced.

In both classroom experience and learning package activity development, the use of teacher and student-produced media mandates exceptionally systematic advanced planning and preparation. The production of audio-visual media and materials is complex, requiring careful organization and coordination, advance gathering of the necessary materials and facilities, and teacher knowledge of the processes and techniques in order to provide meaningful assistance (and close supervision) for students who desire to attempt these activities. Whenever possible, it is probably advisable for the novice teacher to consult the school media specialist or a member of the art or photography departments for assistance or suggestions regarding the use of these types of activities. They can be extremely valuable experiences, and neither teachers or students should be discouraged from trying them, but some basic knowledge and skill is required for the most successful results.

Particularly in learning packages (which emphasize self-pacing, individualized learning styles, variety in activities, and student

options), both teacher and student-developed media can provide exceptional benefits. The teacher can produce whatever audio-visual resource activities may be desired thus freeing him from dependency upon predominantly print media; and students designing and producing their own audio-visual materials to practice mastery of a skill or concept is ideally suited to the needs and purposes of application activities and especially (when more complex and involved) to Quest activities.

Visual Displays and Learning Centers

Visual displays are teacher or student-prepared bulletin boards, collages, posters, models, etc. which illustrate a concept or topic to be investigated by students. These displays may be a part of the regular classroom environment, special displays and materials developed and provided specially for the learning package activities, or materials collected, organized and managed in learning centers either developed specifically for the learning package or for more general use in the regular curricular and instructional activities. Decisions as to the procedure for organizing and presenting these resources will depend upon several factors; among them being teacher preference, desired student experiences, desired learning package outcomes and package structure, availability of time and facilities, and appropriateness to both the specific activities and the total package design and implementation.

In general, development and use of visual displays and learning centers in learning package programs is designed to provide students with (A) a means of obtaining information (used as Resource Activities), (B) a means of using information (used as Application Activities), or (C) possible combinations of both, depending upon the manner in which they are used. Some selected examples of the specific types of instructional materials and methods in this category include:

exhibits	bulletin boards
models	posters
murals	collages
maps, globes	demonstrations
charts, graphs	scrapbooks, collections
pictures, drawings, illustrations	audio-visual tapes
cartoons	film loops, cassettes
photographs	pamphlets, brochures,
newspapers, newspaper articles	booklets
books, magazines	"show and tell" centers
mobiles	documents, artifacts
foods, herbs	clothing, jewelry,
flannel boards	accessories
date-lines	dramatizations--"live"
plants, fossils, ecosystems, biosystems	or taped
manipulative objects (blocks, clay,	souvenirs, post cards,
paper, fabrics, paints, etc.)	travel brochures

puppets, puppet shows
historical popular literature
advertisements, slogans
kits, puzzles
sentences, quotes
slides, filmstrips, films
original artwork, projects
tools, weapons, uniforms (real or
illustrated)

paper dolls, cut-outs
dolls, toys, games
songs, dances
pictures and captions
(to arrange, match,
etc.)
dioramas
book jackets
original artwork,
projects

When using visual displays and learning centers with learning packages, directions, guidelines, related activities, etc. may be included either within the package or may be with the visual display. In either case, if the visual activity is to be a part of the learning package it should be included in the activities provided by the sections of the package to provide continuity with all components of the package. The student is directed to the visual display outside the package and appropriate directions and explanations given either in the activity listing or in the package or at the display station itself.

Used in this way, visual displays and learning or activity centers can be used to provide visual, audio-visual and action-oriented or "hands-on" resources and learning activities that cannot be contained within the package itself.

Community Resources

Utilizing community resources is essential in education in order to provide both the school and individual students with direct experiences with the realities of life in their immediate environment. The educational intent is to bring the students into direct contact with resources within the community which they may not have experienced. When meaningfully coordinated into a systematic learning program, these resources become rich sources of student information and involvement.

When utilizing community resources in an instructional program, a few fundamental guidelines need to be followed. There are two principle methods used in employing community resources in educational experiences: to take the students to the resources (via field trips, field experiences, work-study programs, independent study, contract learning, etc.); and to bring the resources to the students (via guest speakers, films, interviews, demonstrations, presentations, panel discussions, special assemblies, etc.). The decision as to which procedure to use will depend upon many factors including administrative policies, available facilities, and appropriateness to the desired learning outcomes. Whatever decision is made, not only should all the necessary administrative arrangements be made to facilitate the experience, but the students should also be adequately prepared for the activity in advance. This will include providing the students with some general background information, the objectives of the experience, and some preliminary discussion of the types of questions

to be answered and information to be gathered by the activity. The activity should be followed by some concluding experiences (such as discussion, short reviews, reaction reports, etc.) which serve to aid students in the organizing and clarifying of the experiences and information gained and in relating them to the original objectives. Whether used with individual students or with entire classes, experiences providing direct contact with community resources can be a valuable adjunct to the more formal typical classroom experiences planned for students.

In the development of learning packages, the utilization of community resources also provides a valuable source of learning activities. The principle difference in their use in the learning package format is that the package, rather than the teacher, provides the organization and basic instruction regarding the use of the community resources. Again, this procedure will vary widely between packages and developers but the general procedure would be for the developer, upon deciding what community resources are appropriate to the package and how best to manage those activities (individually or group; field or in-class, etc.), would then include a brief description of the activity in the appropriate portion of the package section, resource or application, following the guidelines governing those divisions previously outlined. Following the brief description of the nature of the activity, the appropriate directions to the student and other helpful guidelines should be included, as is illustrated by the example below:

EXAMPLE: Optional Resource Activity

Interview: Individually, with a friend or group of friends, interview several people associated with law enforcement. Suggestions might be a patrolman (or woman), a police chief, a detective (police and/or private), a private attorney, a district attorney and a judge. Find out from them (a) their duties associated with law enforcement and prevention, (b) the costs to the public or private citizen associated with their job, (c) where this money comes from, (d) how much these costs are increasing, and (e) what economic costs would be involved in helping them to be totally effective at their job. See your teacher for specific directions on making arrangements.

Additionally, after suggesting the use of community resources as an activity, the teacher (or developer) using the package must be certain to make all necessary preliminary arrangements which will facilitate student accomplishment of the activities. These arrangements may range from simply providing suggested names of interviewees and/or procedural guidelines for preparing and conducting interviews, polls or surveys, to making specific plans and arrangements for field trips

or guest speakers for total class activities. These arrangements must be completed prior to using the package in the classroom in order to ensure that all the suggested or required resources and learning activities are available when the students are ready for them, and all the managerial strategies and special directions for using these resources and procedures must be clearly described in the Teacher's Guide which accompanies the student package.

SELECTED STRATEGIES

As distinguished from methods which are defined as basic, generalizable approaches to teaching, strategies are identified as being "the more specific techniques or procedures used by the teacher to achieve desired goals or implement the desired methods in the classroom." (Hansen, 1975) This definition would include a vast range of instructional activities planned and implemented in the daily conduct of providing learning experiences from reading and answering questions to simulations and active social participation. For the purposes of this handbook, and because the intent is not to write a general teaching methods text, the specific strategies included in this section are limited to strategies which are either more contemporary or would not usually be readily considered to be appropriate or feasible in the learning package format. Again, the intent is to describe the strategy in more general application first and then to more specifically discuss its application and usage within learning packages. Because of the necessary limits of space in this handbook, each strategy cannot be discussed beyond the most superficial treatment and teachers and package developers are strongly urged to refer to the Suggested Resources in Appendix B, p. 82 for more comprehensive, extensive explanations and suggestions regarding each strategy. Reference to both the general methods and specific strategies sections is recommended.

Simulations, Role-Playing, and Games

Although all are somewhat different, simulations, role-playing, and games are often placed in the same general category of instructional strategies in that they all attempt to actively involve the student(s) in the structured re-enactment of real-life situations by using operating models of physical and social situations. As such, they are appropriate in all of the curriculum from industrial arts (the workshop) and driver's education (simulated automobiles) to social studies (socio-drama, games), language arts (role-playing, dramatic interpretation), and science or math (laboratory, calculators and computer centers).

Simulations and Games

Simulations and instructional games will be discussed together as the distinctions between them lie primarily in the extent to which the outcome is predetermined (it is more so in a simulation), and because the distinctions between them are not always agreed upon by developers, users or theorists.

A simulation may be considered as any activity which reproduces the actions of a situation, whether they be from real life situations or drawn from theory or imagination. Most simulation games reproduce a model of an actual or hypothetical situation.

Educators have found simulation to be a most exciting learning device. They encourage students to seek additional information about the real or hypothetical problem studied and assist teachers in providing excellent opportunities for students to develop intellectual skills of comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Many concepts that are difficult to learn can be learned while enjoying the process through simulation and gaming.

The uses and objectives of simulations cover a wide field of possibilities. Most simulation games are designed to influence the cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral characteristics of the participants. Because of their flexibility as an educational strategy, simulations can be used on all levels and in a wide variety of instructional settings. Simulations may be purchased from commercial developers or may be developed by individual teachers for the specific needs and purposes of a learning experience. (Some guidelines for teacher-developed simulations may be found in the Suggested Resources in Appendix B, p. 82)

The essential properties of a simulation game as previously defined are as follows: "1) Its basic elements are players or actors, each striving to achieve his goal; 2) It is limited to a relatively small, fixed set of players; 3) Its rules limit the range and define the nature of legitimate actions of the players; 4) again, through the rules, it establishes the basic order, sequence, and structure within which the actions take place; 5) It is delimited in time as well as extensity; with an end defined by the rules; and 6) Its rules constitute a temporary suspension of the ordinary activities of life and rules of behavior for them by substituting for them these special time-and-space delimited ones." (Coleman, NASSP Bulletin, February 1968) They are closely tied to well-defined objectives and generally begin with a "scenario" of play, and are generally concluded by or followed with some form of concluding activity (de-brief, discussion, reaction report, review and analysis, written summary and conclusions, application to a related or similar situation, etc.) in which the players and perhaps observers are encouraged to analyze and evaluate the experience and perhaps apply it to real-life situations and behavior.

Classroom administration of simulations can be divided into five phases: (Burgess, Peterson, and Frantz; Social Education, February 1969)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| (1) pre-run operations: | setting up the simulation and physical facilities, establishing the scenario or history, assigning "management" roles, and other required preparations to aid smooth operation. |
| (2) participant training: | familiarizing participants (and observers if used) with the game procedures, concepts, objectives, terminology, rules, strategies, etc. and making role assignments. |
| (3) practice sessions: | if possible and feasible, a short "trial run" might be used to ensure participant preparedness and smooth operation of the "system" |
| (4) run operations: | the actual conduct of the simulation, observing all rules and requirements and participation of all actors. |
| (5) participant debriefing: | generally, an open discussion among all participants, management staff and perhaps observers of the actual conduct and progress of the simulation. At this point, there may be conclusions and/or generalizations drawn, projections made, analysis and evaluations or appraisals investigated, and relationships drawn between the simulation and the reality referent. |

Usually, optimal utilization of simulations and games can be obtained by following the five phases listed above, but this may have to be mediated by the instructor depending upon the particular goals and circumstances of the instructional setting.

Role-Playing

Role-playing is a group problem-solving method that enables students to explore human problems in spontaneous enactments followed by guided discussions. It permits groups to explore life situations in a supportive environment where feelings can be expressed, ideas of reality explored, and consequences delineated.

Usually, a role-playing session consists of an incident or problem situation, involving two or more people, in which some action must take place to solve a problem. Since it is an open-ended situation (no solution is offered to the group; the description stops at the dilemma point), there must be some analysis of what is happening, with some proposals being given for possible action that might solve the problem.

Customarily, the sequence of activities in role-playing involves: (1) delineating a situation; (2) proposing a course of action; (3) conducting an enactment; and (4) discussing. The group may decide that the portrayal was adequate (realistic), and explore in further enactments what could happen if that line of action were followed. Thus, the consequences of that alternative will be identified. Further discussions might generate additional alternatives, and each can be explored in addition to its consequences.

Role-playing typically involves the following steps:

- (1) "Warming up" the group (problem confrontation)
- (2) Selecting the participants (problem confrontation)
- (3) Preparing the audience to participate as observers
- (4) Setting the stage
- (5) Role-playing (an enactment)
- (6) Discussing the enactment
- (7) Further enactment (replaying revised roles, suggested next steps, exploring alternative possibilities)
- (8) Further discussion (which may be followed by more enactments)
- (9) Sharing experiences (relating the role-playing to one's life experiences) which may result in generalizing.

There are numerous educational uses for role-playing or sociodrama ranging from an investigation of personal values to techniques especially useful for instructing slow learners. One use that is becoming increasingly important is practice in decision-making. Through role-playing of typical conflict situations, students can be introduced to the notion that they can solve their own problems. By direct, active involvement in spontaneous conflict resolution, they learn that they act (make decisions) on the basis of the values they hold, and that an understanding of this process contributes toward mature decision-making.

What role then do simulations, games and role-playing have in learning packages? It would seem that generally these strategies are designed to be used as whole class activities, but learning package activities are

based on individualized self-pacing and student options. However, because the majority of contemporary classrooms are still designed, structured and conducted around the traditional model of all students doing the same thing at the same time, we should continue to expect most materials and methodologies being proposed to continue to be directed toward that instructional mode. The key, as initially stated in this handbook, is to look at the learning package as an instructional management system and develop the activities to fit within that system to best achieve the goals of the instructional program designed to meet the stated objectives. What takes place then is developer modification and mediation of materials and strategies to fit the model. Simulations, games and role-playing need not (but may, if desired) involve an entire class in the activity simultaneously. As students reach the designated places for these activities in the package, they may either select or be required to participate in these activities, and are then directed by the package as to how to organize and carry out this type of activity. As with other methods and materials previously discussed, the essential step is the provision, by the developer and the teacher-user, of clear, precise instructions to the students to assist them in the activity and the antecedent planning and preparation by the user so that the activity is ready for the students when they reach that decision point. These instructions may be included with the activity in the student package, or may be provided verbally by the teacher to groups of students as they are directed to him/her. This procedure is illustrated by the example listed below:

EXAMPLE: An Application Activity

With 1 - 5 of your friends, play the game "Organized Crime". See the teacher for the materials and specific instructions. When finished, discuss it with the other players and write a 1-2 page essay about the nature of organized crime and why it continues.

Essentially, then, implementation of action-oriented, direct involvement strategies and student activities in learning packages depends upon careful management and planning, and some modifications of strategies and materials as is most appropriate to their operationalization in the package format. Many simulations and role-playing experiences are as, if not more so, appropriate as team or small-group activities as whole class activities, requiring mostly a high degree of teacher organization and preparation for their effective use in packages.

Values Clarification and Moral Dilemmas

Values clarification and moral dilemma strategies are being discussed together for two reasons: 1) they are probably the two most discussed, most currently "popular" teaching strategies in the pro-

fession today, and 2) they both deal, though somewhat differently, with essentially similar aspects of human decision-making in that they explore, analyze and attempt to develop student skills in the identification and analysis of values and valuing and how they affect problem-solving and decision-making behaviors.

Whereas moral dilemmas are a strategy for helping students identify the role of values in moral decision-making and develop skills of cognitive moral reasoning at increasingly higher levels by analyzing realistic dilemmas which represent these issues and levels of reasoning; values clarification is a strategy for helping students identify, analyze and clarify values and the valuing process itself, both their own and that of others and differences between them. Moral reasoning presumes valuing and values clarification processes and an analysis of their relationship to moral development and decision-making.

Values Clarification

Values clarification is an educational strategy designed to systematically and purposefully guide students in the cognitive process of examining, analyzing and evaluating values, the act of valuing, and the forces or influences which affect those behaviors. This analysis is achieved through the use of clarifying questions and activities in a trusting, non-judgemental environment. Clarifying questions and activities are designed and posed to cause individuals and groups to consider their intents, possible consequences of values and value statements, degrees of commitment to values, alternatives to value positions, and the means for recognizing and resolving value conflicts. In the classroom it is, in essence, "Providing the pupil with a means of identifying beliefs and action, of analyzing and exploring for himself, and of making studied choices on the bases of consequences to equip him with a valuing process--a process that can lead to personally satisfying and socially responsible decision-making." (Dunfee and Crump, 1974)

Values clarification strategies focus on encouraging students to examine and develop skill in the valuing process. Rath has described the total valuing process as being comprised of three basic processes and seven subprocesses: (Raths, Harmin and Simon, 1966)

Choosing one's beliefs and behaviors

1. Choosing freely or making independent choices
2. Choosing from alternatives after generating all available choices
3. Choosing after thoughtful consideration of expected circumstances

Prizing one's beliefs and behaviors

4. Prizing and cherishing through determining what is most important and worthy
5. Publicly affirming through appropriately speaking out about one's beliefs and actions.

Acting on one's beliefs

6. Acting in a manner consistent with choices and prizes
7. Acting with some pattern which repeatedly demonstrates choices and prizes.

Specific techniques for using values clarification strategies in the classroom are extremely varied ranging from verbal questioning and discussion to complete simulations and values clarification kits available from commercial publishers. In general, the following types of experiences are most frequently recommended:

Clarifying Questions
Open-ended Statements
Role-playing
Simulation/Continued Incident
Value Sheet, Value Card
Value Continuum
Reaction Sheets/Reports
Public Interviews

Rank-Ordering
Forced-Choice Activities
Case Studies
Value-Clarifying Discussion
Devil's Advocate
Thought Sheets, Diaries, Journals
Decision-Making Interview

For specific teaching strategies and suggestions on these techniques for classroom use, the reader is referred to the recommended resources in Appendix B, p. 83.

Moral Dilemmas

Today's schools have become embroiled in considerable controversy concerning what is and what should be taught in the classroom. This is particularly true in the area of values and moral development, as schools appear ever more willing to accept additional responsibilities--often without clearcut direction from the community.

The problem of moral development concerns every individual instructor, but may be of greater importance to the teacher of social studies. In many cases, the social studies program has adopted goals and procedures centering on controversial issues--among them being issues concerning morals and values.

Traditionally, moral education has centered upon two general methods. One method stressed direct educational procedures, such as telling students that honesty is always the best policy. Its adherents argued that teaching students a "bag of virtues" could promote sound character development.

The second method of moral education stressed indirect educational techniques focusing upon the rules established for classroom behavior, the manner and values of the teacher, and the values expressed in the curricular materials. Through their daily activities the student's value system was theoretically affected by his interaction with these factors.

During the past decade educators increasingly stressed new approaches to moral education that emphasized valuing. They described these approaches by terms such as value clarification, value analysis, the analysis of controversial issues, humanistic education, and concern for the student's self concept. Within the social studies, these new approaches replaced both indoctrination and the incidental methods of moral education frequently used before the 1960's.

Concurrent with the introduction of these new methods of values education, research began on a theory of cognitive moral development. This theory focused on the ways in which individuals reason about moral issues. Lawrence Kohlberg, a Harvard psychologist, has led the research efforts in this field, and his findings have evoked considerable interest among social studies educators.

Developmental psychology has discovered that mental processes develop in invariant sequences through a series of stages. Cognitive development means that an individual's conceptual thinking or reasoning changes or matures. Cognitive moral development, Kohlberg's contribution to the field, posits that an individual's thinking about matters related to morality also changes or matures through an invariant sequence. The increase in maturity involves the growth or development of a more rationale system of reasoning about situations involving moral conflicts.

Kohlberg's theory of cognitive moral development indicates that an individual's thinking about moral situations matures according to a specific sequence that he presents in three levels, each consisting of two stages.

Level 1: Pre-Conventional

At this level an individual's moral reasoning results from the consequences of actions (punishment, reward, exchange of favors) and from the physical power of those in positions of authority.

Stage 1: Decisions result from blind obedience to power, an attempt to avoid punishment, or an attempt to seek rewards.

Stage 2: Decisions result from a desire to satisfy one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. Reasoning involves little consideration of loyalty, gratitude, or justice.

Level 2: Conventional

At this level an individual's moral reasoning involves consideration of the interest of others (family and peers) and a desire to maintain, respect, support, and justify the existing social order.

Stage 3: Decisions result from a desire to please and help others and receive their approval in turn. Behavior is frequently judged by intention--"he means well" becomes important for the first time.

Stage 4: Decisions result from a desire to maintain the existing authority, rules and social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty.

Level 3: Post Conventional

At this level an individual's moral reasoning incorporates moral values and principles that have validity and application beyond the authority of groups. Moral reasoning becomes more comprehensive and reflects universal principles.

Stage 5: Decisions result from recognition of an individual's rights within a society that has a social contract. As a result the individual's reasoning emphasizes the "legal point of view", but with an emphasis upon the possibility of changing laws.

Stage 6: Decisions result from an obligation to universal ethical principles that apply to all mankind. The universal principles of justice, reciprocity and equality of human rights, and respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals serve as a basis for individual reasoning. (Kohlberg, 1968)

Although children and adolescents move at varying rates of speed through the stages, pre-adolescents usually attain a pre-conventional level, adolescents achieve the conventional level, and adults move toward the post-conventional level of reasoning. However, individuals can be "frozen" at any level, and less than 20 per cent of the adult population reasons at the post-conventional level.

Kohlberg has also established that students who participate regularly in discussions of moral dilemmas often begin to articulate reasoning at higher stages of development. This evidence indicates that exchanging reasoning during a group discussion of a moral dilemma can stimulate moral development through the stages. A good group discussion depends on three variables: a recognized moral dilemma, a leader who can help to focus the discussion on moral reasoning, and a classroom climate that encourages students to express their moral reasoning freely. Teachers must help students to confront a moral problem involved in a dilemma, to state a position on that dilemma, to test the reasoning behind their position, and to reflect on their reasoning and that of others during a discussion.

As an instructional strategy, moral dilemmas focus on carefully planned, expertly directed discussions of teacher-prepared dilemmas

designed to encourage and provoke student reasoning on higher levels of the Kohlberg developmental model. The original dilemma should have three characteristics. It should present a real conflict for the central character; it should include a number of moral issues for consideration; and it should generate differences of opinion among students about the appropriate response to the situation. The teaching plan itself includes three parts; a list of general instructions for presenting the original dilemma; a series of alternative dilemmas to use to provoke disagreement between students or to provoke consideration of issues involving higher levels of reasoning, or reflect on reasoning. The teaching process itself is illustrated by Figure 6 , p. 49 ; and more detailed description of the models and the process are provided in the reading in Appendix A, p.65 .

In learning packages, values clarification activities and moral dilemmas can be effectively used to develop achievement of affective objectives, or to provide other desired student experiences relating to the investigation of the content and questions with which the learning package may be concerned. Because both are designed to purposefully develop student's self-awareness and critical reasoning abilities, with careful planning they can be integrated into learning packages as meaningful activities to enable students to directly deal with the valuing and moral issues that the package may present. The primary requirements for their successful use in the learning package format are the systematic development and teacher preparation of the necessary materials, directions, and management strategies to effectively implement them. Values clarification activities may be individual, small group or large group experiences, and moral dilemmas may be both small group and/or large group experiences generally needing only expertive teacher-directed leadership. Both types of activities require student preparation in content or knowledge areas relating to actual issues and decisions involved, and this preparation stage naturally leads itself to the resource activities sections of the package. The actual clarifying and reasoning stages of valuing and moral development can be incorporated into the application activities sections of the package by following one or more of the techniques or models suggested such as role-playing, discussion, simulation, or any others as appropriate to the objectives, the students, and the package itself. Management is provided by both the package instructions and teacher assistance as illustrated in the following:

For Example:

(Values Clarification) "Based on your reading on white-collar crime in the Resource Activities, with 3 of your friends role-play a situation in which an act of shoplifting has occurred. The needed roles would be the shoplifter, a customer who witnesses the act, the manager who apprehends the suspect and reports the offense, and the policeman who investigates the call. Following the role descriptions and the role-playing guidelines obtained from your teacher, act out the scene and

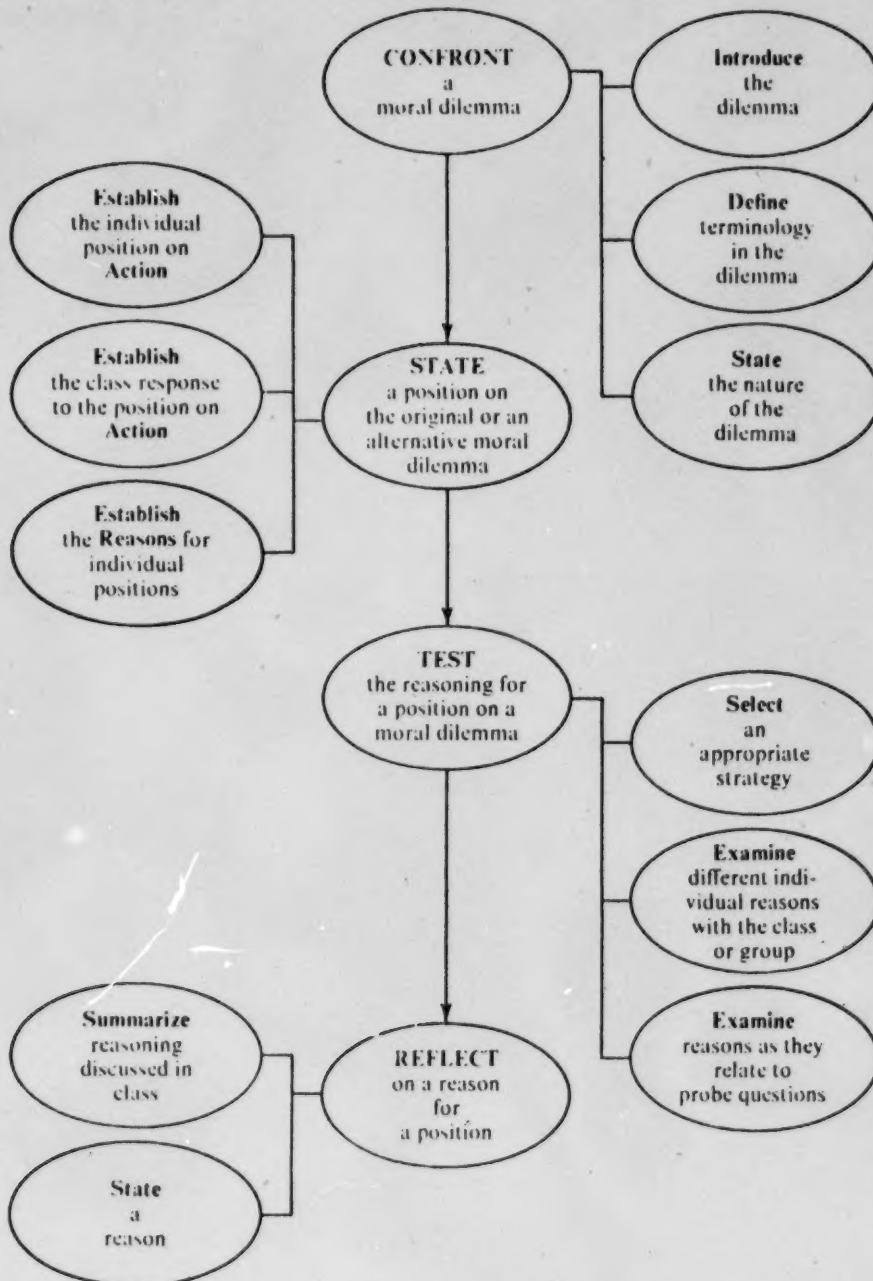
then discuss what occurred and developed during the role-playing. Pay particular attention to participant's feelings, behaviors and the reasons stated for their particular situations and behavior. See your teacher for the materials and specific instructions."

(Moral Dilemma) "With the class or a small group of other students, participate in the moral dilemma activities dealing with death and dying which will be provided by your teacher. While participating in the selected activities, refer to the questions and information which was presented in your Resource Activities as a base for establishing your position and testing your reasoning on the moral issues involved in the activity, and in the process of reflecting upon the reasoning after the activity is completed. For materials and specific instructions, see your teacher.

Values clarification and moral reasoning activities then, rather than being dismissed as basically inappropriate to the learning package format because of their affective behavior focus and dynamic, action-oriented nature as classroom strategies, can be made exceptionally meaningful and appropriate to the model through careful planning and management by the package developer and the individual teacher using the package. Properly developed and implemented, they can serve to directly enhance student achievement of objectives at the highest levels of the cognitive and affective domains of learning.

Figure 6

Diagram of the Teaching Process for Teaching a Moral Dilemma



(Gallbraith and Jones, 1975)

Questioning

An often used, but seldom analyzed aspect of classroom instruction is the proper use of questioning. Teachers frequently use questions without considering the various types, uses, and effects of questions upon the classroom environment. Used properly, questioning is the key to the movement of information between student and teacher.

The questions to be used in a class depend upon the aims of the lesson or unit. The "right" questions are those which assist the teacher in achieving a particular objective or set of objectives that are considered important. If primary interest is in having the students acquire factual information, certain types of questions will tend to be asked. If teachers are interested in students being able to synthesize the knowledge they have acquired, questions of a different nature will be asked. Should they desire their students to be able to analyze the facts they have acquired, yet another type of question will be necessary. Should the goal be the use of creative thought, queries of a different nature will be needed. Developing skills of evaluation and judgement demand questions designed specifically for achieving that goal. And finally, guiding students into responding and valuing can only be accomplished by using questions appropriate to that task.

Therefore, each question asked in class by the teacher or by a student has a specific function, and different types of questions fulfill needs better than others. Below is a listing of the more common types of questions.

- 1.) Data questions - These questions focus on specific facts or figures that may be required during a lesson.
- 2.) Background questions - This type of question calls for a somewhat broader answer than simple recall. It uses facts already at the student's disposal and serves as a bridge to further work.
- 3.) Problem pinpointing questions - This question, usually stated in imperative form, draws the students attention to a specific problem encountered in their work.
- 4.) Summarizing questions - Attention is focused on crucial points in the development of the lesson. Such questions can serve to summarize and crystallize thinking in an area before using that material for further study or application.
- 5.) Interest getting questions - This kind of question helps to actively involve the student and make material relevant to him.
- 6.) Involvement questions - This question requires the student to apply some of the former learnings to a current, and realistic problem at hand.

- 7.) Curiosity questions - Sometimes a work or a statement puzzles a student or you, and so a question is asked to satisfy curiosity. These questions often serve to focus attention or pinpoint problem areas.

Another mode of classifying types of questions is by identifying them according to their relationship to the domains and classes of learning identified by Bloom and Krathwohl in their taxonomies of educational objectives. Questions can be designed to stimulate student thinking at differing levels of learning behavior and as a result the manner of posing questions often directly dictates the response given. Skill in planning and utilizing questions at varied levels of learning is essential if we are to promote student achievement of our specified objectives. Questions of this type are explained and illustrated below:

COGNITIVE BEHAVIOR

Level 1 - Knowledge:

The student is asked to perform simple recall.

Example: "In the Hindu faith, what determines the individual's caste?"

Level 2 - Comprehension:

The student is asked to put information in another form.

Example: "Contrast Hindu reincarnation with Christian salvation."

Level 3 - Application:

The student is asked to select facts, principles, and/or generalizations and apply these to a particular problem.

Example: "Looking at a blank map of an imaginary island, where would you estimate that cities, farm areas could be developed by settlers?"

Level 4 - Analysis:

Students identify and comprehend the elements or parts of a process, communication, or series of events.

Example: "What events and practices within our society in the 1960's could you distinguish as strongly contributing to the social unrest and rapid change of the late 60's and early 1970's?"

Level 5 - Synthesis:

Students are asked to organize information acquired at lower levels of learning and to produce creative original results based on that study.

Example: "Given your understanding of Hindu religious beliefs of caste, ahimsa, and reincarnation, what would you devise as a reasonable proposal for easing their problems of poverty, starvation, and overpopulation that would not violate those beliefs?"

Level 6 - Evaluation:

Students are asked to determine how closely a concept, idea or communication is consistent with standards or values.

Example: "After examining criticisms of traditional female roles and treatments in our society and proposals for change, which proposed change do you think would be most consistent with our social and political values? Defend your choice."

AFFECTIVE BEHAVIOR

Level 1 - Receiving:

Students are asked to take notice and be aware of a phenomenon.

Example: "What is the situation or problem?" "Why did you or did you not notice the feelings and attitudes of the people involved in the episode?"

Level 2 - Responding:

The student is asked to react or respond to stimuli, either neutrally or with increasing degrees of positivism, because expected to or feels real interest in and pleasure from doing so.

Example: "How did you or might you react?" "How do you feel about the experience?" "What, if anything, might you want to do in response?"

Level 3 - Valuing:

The student is asked to demonstrate some consistency in attaching worth or importance to a phenomenon, and increasingly to develop a basic attitude and active commitment to a position.

Example: "What did you do? feel? say? mean?" "What alternatives or choices did you have and/or consider?" "What assumptions did you make?" "Did you freely choose?" "Would you choose the same action again? Why or why not?" "Can you defend your action?"

Level 4 - Organization:

Students are asked to relate and integrate value positions with a value system and personal life philosophy and self-concept or identity.

Example: "What other beliefs, principles, or behaviors did you consider?" "Why were some considerations more important than others?" "What most significantly affected your decision? Why?"

Level 5 - Characterization:

The student is asked to exhibit a basic orientation of a whole related series of attitudes, values, and beliefs and an identifiable pattern of behavior consistent with those values by which others know him/her.

Example: "How well did your action fit with all other values you have?" "Do you or did you experience considerable conflict between your decision or action and other beliefs you have?" "Did your decision change how you feel about your other values, beliefs?" "What might/did influence you to change now or in the future?"

Obviously, these examples are written for more sophisticated students, but the same principles are applicable to students at all levels and abilities. Also, rarely does questioning occur at one level or in one domain at a time but rather progresses from level to level and often incorporates questions directed to both domains in the same situation. The important factor is that instructors realize the significance of the relationship between the questions they and students pose and the type of learning behavior resulting, and intentionally plan and implement this concept in their daily instruction.

When preparing questions for classroom instruction which will effectively achieve the desired intents, a few simple guidelines may prove helpful. Because the list of suggestions could become so lengthy as to be meaningless, a limited number of the more significant guidelines will be presented with explanation when appropriate, and for further specification the reader is directed to the resources suggested in Appendix B, p.83 .

When preparing and drafting questions for classroom use, the skillful instructor should consider the following guidelines:

Questioning Preparation and Formulation

- 1) Be prepared - with comprehensive knowledge of the topic, resources, additional information, and selected predetermined questions designed to direct and structure the interaction.
- 2) Preciseness and conciseness - questions should be appropriately specific and to-the-point to avoid student confusion or misunderstanding.
- 3) Clarity of purpose, relevancy - students should be able to readily see the intent and relatedness of questions to the overall learning experience. Avoid trivial, insignificant or unrelated questions and any attempts to "trick" students.
- 4) Elicit higher-order thinking - the majority of questions posed should be designed to challenge students to think at the higher levels of knowledge learning - application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation - and in the affective domain of behavior as well, rather than placing undue emphasis on low-level knowledge and comprehensive thinking only.
- 5) Stimulate creative and evaluative thought - along with higher-level intellectual skills, questioning should also stimulate and encourage students to use original, creative thinking and evaluation of information, ideas, and values. More specifically, questioning should encourage the intellectual and emotional skills of judgement, extrapolation, interpretation, synthesis, application, analysis, hypothesizing, concluding,

infering, valuing, critiquing, questioning, substantiation, justification and decision-making. Only occasionally should questions requiring only yes/no or overly simple or obvious one or two-word responses be employed.

- 6) Vary difficulty and type - effective questioning does not focus on one level or type of question, but rather varies meaningfully between differing types of questions and levels of difficulty. The nature of questions should promote alternative modes of responding and dealing with information, should be appropriate to differences in students' abilities and backgrounds, and should always be phrased in vocabulary that is clear and understandable to the majority of students.
- 7) Use timing and sequence to promote progress - highly successful, effective questioning that truly results in student understanding and reasoning development clearly depends upon a highly organized, systematic approach to both the content and process of the questioning procedure. Questions should be sequenced in increasingly sophisticated levels of thought required, timed according to their appropriateness to the ongoing progress of the activity and relatedness to that progress, and should always serve to reinforce and directly promote the natural forward progress of the lesson. This requires both careful, purposeful teacher planning and flexibility based on acute sensitivity to the interaction itself as it progresses.
- 8) Directing and Individualizing - effective questioning strategies can promote both total group thinking and individualization simultaneously. Most questions should be addressed to the entire group so as to promote responsive reasoning by all students, but occasionally specific questions addressed to students with particular interests or talents should be used as appropriate in order to positively reinforce or encourage participation by reluctant, less able, or shy students. In directing questions, skillful teachers are careful to avoid addressing questions to or acknowledging and responding predominantly to those students who are more gifted or who always or frequently volunteer. In order to actively involve all students in the interaction, a balance should be maintained between calling on volunteers and nonvolunteers, strongly active participants and reluctant students, and both bright and average or slower students. This may be accomplished in several ways including 1) exploring or expanding incomplete or limited answers, 2) redirecting questions or answers to the class for further development, 3) encouraging student questions, comments or critiques, and evaluations of responses, and 4) asking for student summarizations, hypotheses, and generalizations relating to previously-covered information and ideas.

9. Positively reinforce participation, correct responses - Absolutely essential to dynamic, successful questioning and discussion is that students feel comfortable and relaxed and that their participation is worthwhile. This is most effectively accomplished through reinforcement of participation and correctness by way of verbal and nonverbal teacher behavior, teacher and class supportiveness and respect, and building on or redirecting student responses.
10. A few, selected "avoids" - In general, the following questioning "don'ts" not previously mentioned to avoid are:
- a) using "leading" questions that indicate the teacher's or desired opinion in the phrasing of the question.
 - b) stating questions in such a way as to make the correct response obvious.
 - c) asking questions to which the students can only guess at the correct response or attempt to discover it by supplying irrelevant or insignificant data.
 - d) asking questions about irrelevant or unimportant facts or issues. They merely serve to confuse and bewilder students. Focus on key concepts, significant facts, and critical, important issues.
 - e) posing "double" questions which require students to answer two or more interrelated questions simultaneously.
 - f) using ambiguous or indefinite questions which students do not understand or cannot determine the definition, scope or purpose of.
 - g) repeating questions or answers which encourages inattention and mumbling when responding. Rephrasing or redirecting for clarification or expanding may be necessary, but serves to keep the interaction progressing.
 - h) expecting and/or encouraging "immediate" responses. Some silence, or time for thinking about the question is frequently necessary to promote careful thinking and formulation of responses by all students. Do not pounce on the first volunteer; observe the group for nonverbal signs of thinking, understanding or confusion, etc. and to give reluctant students time to respond also.

Carefully planned and successfully implemented questioning strategies are often the dividing line between mediocre or "good" teachers and "brilliant", exceptional teachers. Questioning is unquestionably a teaching skill and as such can be developed by careful practice and attention to critical management and operationalization principles. When mastered however, it is the singularly most productive, exciting strategy we have at our disposal and rapidly becomes the core of all instructional activity -- even stating objectives and designing evaluation strategies are closely-related extensions of the same skills.

Questioning In Learning Packages

When initially designing learning package activities, most developers tend to include questioning only in the textbook mode of low-level knowledge-based lists of "study questions" tied to the recitation of information gained in the resource activities, or to employ extensive, complicated, extremely involved essay questions requiring the student to cover everything "from soup to nuts" about the content of the package. Used cautiously and with discrimination, there is nothing wrong about these methods, but they seldom allow or encourage questioning to be used in the ways it is most effective as discussed earlier.

Remembering the same principles and guidelines outlined earlier for verbal questioning, this same strategy can effectively be utilized to make learning packages more interesting and personalized for students while also developing student thinking and reasoning skills on all levels of both cognitive and affective learning behavior. A few of the possible methods for incorporating questioning into learning packages will be discussed in the hope that resourceful teachers will try them and invent additional procedures of their own.

The current stress on inquiry and problem-solving approaches to teaching depend extensively on effective questioning strategies. In learning packages, this approach can be achieved by the skillful use of questions in the introduction and throughout the package to stimulate thinking and questioning about the package ideas and concepts, and to provide motivation and stimulate student interest in the package. Posing just the right questions at strategic points in the package can initiate and help sustain student involvement throughout the package. These questions must intrigue and provoke students; create "felt needs", conflicts, or unresolved problems; cause students to sense relevancy and/or urgency about the topic; provoke expanded or more complex needs and concerns within the progressive development of the package; and develop all kinds of other discomforting or curious responses to the concepts and/or issues at hand. Using questioning to achieve these student feelings productively without causing frustration and excessive anxiety or fear of failure requires masterful planning, and begins with the inception of the package ideas and continues throughout all the developmental and implementation phases of the package process.

A second use of questioning in learning packages is as an Application Activity. A well-designed set of questions for students to answer can be an appropriate and meaningful experience without having to over-emphasize or depend on low-level cognitive responses alone. Questions can be provided which will require students to use high-level cognitive thinking and affective development by intentionally planning and preparing questions which achieve those objectives.

Questioning skills are also of great value when used as directional or probe guidelines accompanying resource and application activities. As such, a few well-stated carefully selected questions can serve to focus student's attention and thinking as they do the activities provided. Perhaps the following examples will serve to illustrate this procedure.

For Example: Activity # 1 - Study the pictorial essay: "America's Poor". As you study them, consider how you would respond to each of the following questions:

- a) What general characteristics do you observe?
- b) What specific problems or difficulties of these people do you see?
- c) What do these people's faces tell you about:
 - 1) their life conditions and feelings?
 - 2) their attitudes toward life in America in general?
 - 3) their attitudes toward and expectations for the future?
- d) These are pictures prominent in articles or advertisements from a major American magazine. Study them carefully. What general and specific (deal directly with both) conclusions could you reasonably make about the relationship between economic environment or opportunity and a person's tendency toward crime? What types of crimes might poorer people be more likely to commit? If you had to sit on a jury for one of them, what factors or circumstances might you consider that could affect your judgment? Would you try to avoid that? Why or why not?

As discussed earlier in this handbook, when properly designed and managed, learning packages can readily incorporate both differing sizes of groups and discussion methods. One mode available is to include small-group or teamed discussions as an application activity. One key to the successful use of this technique is to provide the questions for the group to discuss or to provide basic guidelines for students to follow in planning and conducting their discussion, perhaps requiring them to prepare the questions that will be discussed. Here again, the application of skillful questioning strategies is most appropriate and is accomplished by following the same principles and guidelines as for in-

class verbal discussions. By providing the questions or using questions as student guidelines, the teacher/developer can manage the discussion to achieve the desired outcomes without having to lead the discussion directly. (Teacher observation is probably desirable to ensure task direction and completion!)

Requiring only brief mention, yet too important to neglect is the implementation of questioning to conduct and prepare learning package activities in the areas of developing valuing and moral reasoning skills. Questioning, in one form or another, is essential to these learning experiences, and if included in the package, appropriate questions and questioning strategies must be developed to support the successful conduct of them.

A most obvious and yet frequently poorly developed utilization of highly successful questioning strategies in learning packages and general instructional planning is in the evaluation and assessment of learning. Probably because of inadequate questioning skills or the seeming complexity of high-level cognitive and affective questioning, most tests or other evaluation procedures are overwhelmingly developed on the knowledge and comprehension levels only, and rarely attempt to assess or evaluate in any manner student behavior in the affective domain. Yet, by basically applying the same principles of oral interactive questioning to the construction of measurement devices, with some adjustments the same student behaviors and skills can be evaluated. In learning package pre-self- and post-assessments and daily classroom instruction, how much more meaningful and productive it is to take the time to prepare evaluation strategies which give us information about the same behaviors we profess and desire to develop in our classroom instruction. To further detail the procedure for devising these kinds of evaluative strategies is not possible here, but the reader is strongly encouraged to try and to refer to the many professional resources on test construction and evaluation that are available.

All too frequently, and particularly in learning packages, we tend to neglect the critical teaching strategy of effective questioning. However, it is a skill well worth developing fully on all levels and it is applicable, through systematic planning and management, to the learning package model.

Social Participation

Today's schools are undergoing considerable changes throughout their administrative and organizational structures. Included in these changes is increasing social participation by students within the communities in which they live. This is especially true in those areas where there has been a push for openness and humaneness in the schools, although even the most traditional school systems are now willing to consider it.

In general, this participation centers on two broad levels of activity, dependent in part upon the school's curriculum and regulations. The first, and most typical level of social participation involves the limited exposure of students to "out of the classroom" activities. Generally such activities are seen as extensions or additions to the normal class situation, and students are encouraged to use their communities much as one might use any other outside resource. (libraries, field trips, guest speakers, etc.) The possible options are virtually limitless.

In some rare instances, the entire school curriculum focuses on direct student participation within the community. In the Parkway Plan of Philadelphia, for example, no actual school building exists, with the community itself serving as the "school". Students do their learning completely divorced from the usual classroom procedures and physical facilities.

In another open school in Mankato, Minnesota, students do not attend their regular school classes on Friday of each week. Instead, they are expected to spend that day in some outside activity that is of benefit to the community. The students are also responsible for setting up their own programs.

The variations of student social participation vary considerably from community to community and school to school. Basically, the primary purpose of practical social participation is to give students the opportunity to practice in real situations the skills and knowledge acquired in the regular school program and to encourage them to have meaningful contact with their community as a learning environment. Including social participation activities in the curriculum and classroom learning experiences requires careful planning and organization. The activities planned must be relevant to students' learning, and appropriate supervision and scheduling must be provided to ensure successful completion of the activity. Such activities should usually be followed by an appropriate culminating activity to encourage students to reflect on and utilize the learning experiences gained through active involvement. (See reading in Appendix A, p.77 .)

When utilizing active social participation experiences in learning packages, students are encouraged and shown how to utilize the community as resource or application activities. The package and the teacher must provide the necessary structure and organization through instructions, guidelines and suggestions as are appropriate to the activity. The following examples demonstrate this procedure:

For Example:

- 1) Observation: Individually, with a friend or small group of friends, visit the residential and business sections of a lower economic area of your community. Observe particularly a) the housing and general living conditions of these families, and b) the prices and availability of the goods and services available to them.

- 2) Interview a local merchant who specializes in or sells personal and home protection devices to determine how much the public spends to protect themselves against crime, the types of devices they buy, and how much this type of business is increasing. (may also be done with a friend or small group of friends. See Guide to Conducting an Interview in Appendix)
- 3) Individually, with a friend or small group of friends, survey several members of your local community to determine in what ways and at what cost they protect themselves against crime. (See Guide to Conducting Surveys in the Appendices.)
- 4) Have a discussion with your parents or some other adults including the following steps:
 - a) Survey their attitudes and ideas regarding white-collar crime and their knowledge about it, its cost, etc.
 - b) Present to them, based on specific information you give to them and using specific pre-prepared analysis about the whats and whys of white-collar crime and the costs of it.
 - c) Develop with them a program, with specific plans, of what can and should be done to solve the problem.
 - d) Ask them to evaluate your presentation, knowledge about the topic, and "teaching" effectiveness. Ask them to do this in written form. Turn in to your teacher a full description of your activity, the outcomes, and your parent's evaluation for his/her evaluation.
- 5) Write a letter to the editor of your local newspaper, an article for your school newspaper, or prepare and conduct a presentation in which you a) challenge people to assess their attitudes and knowledge about white collar crime, b) propose a plan for dealing with the problem. Observe and record the response and results you get from your efforts, and turn in a written report of your activity including all parts and stages to your teacher for evaluation. (You might also be able to arrange a form of oral evaluation as an option here.)
- 6) If possible, through your teacher make arrangements for yourself and 1-2 other friends to spend a working day with a policeman, attorney, judge or other law-enforcement official. Observe and interview them regarding 1) the time and money spent on preventing and investigating crime locally, 2) how they perceive the community feels about crime, and 3) their suggestions as to how to ease the crime problem in your community. Write a brief report and submit it to your teacher or present it to the class.

These outside activities can include a wide range of possibilities including interviews, field studies, surveys, on-site observations, visitations, and on-the-job participations to name a few. As they are appropriate to the package itself, the students, the teacher and school, and the community, they should be included at least as optional activities to aid students in developing skill at utilizing the real world as a meaningful resource and at applying their learning in appropriate real situations. In this way, students can see the significance of what they learn to their lives and develop skill in continued learning beyond the formal schooling process. The ultimate goal is effective citizenship, and students can begin to practice those habits early in their youth through active social participation.

When carefully designed and administered, learning packages can successfully employ many varied learning activities and alternatives to the traditional reading and writing modes of classroom instruction. When such activities are developed and organized around pre-determined goals and objectives, and are managed systematically by well-prepared instructional process and the provision of individualized instruction, even within the confines of a traditional, "non-open" school environment. The key throughout the entire package development and implementation process is a carefully planned, systematic management approach to the design and structure of the learning experiences which provide students with experiences so that they may achieve the desired objectives. It is hoped that with these guidelines and suggestions teachers will include more of these kinds of opportunities for their students in both learning packages and regular classroom instruction.

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APPENDIX A

READINGS

Teaching Strategies for Moral Dilemmas

*An Application of Kohlberg's Theory
of Moral Development
to the Social Studies Classroom*

by Ronald E. Galbraith and Thomas M. Jones

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Productions in the Social Studies



Rapping with a Robot, written, produced and modeled by George Moxham and Alexander Yosman, Kingston (NY) High School

Student-Made Audiovisual Productions

Viola Woodruff Opdahl

"Good evening, ladies and gentlemen! This is Walter Concrete welcoming you to another in our series of educational programs entitled Science and You. We have with us tonight a rather unusual guest. He is the first robot sociologist . . . runs on 20,000 penlight batteries. He has been programmed by the leading sociologists and psychologists of the world. . . . Ladies and gentlemen, it gives me great pleasure to introduce Doctor Charles Robot!"

So unfolds *Rapping with a Robot*, a sixteen-minute slide-tape production written, produced and modeled by two students, George

Moxham and Alexander Yosman at Kingston High School. This presentation was a unique response to a social studies research project testing judgments and hypotheses rela-

Continued on page 276

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Student-Made Audiovisual Productions

Viola Woodruff Opdahl

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tive to the effects of scientific developments on humanity.

"*Rapping with a Robot*," wrote a school newspaper reporter, "describes the double-edged nature of automation in our modern society. . . . The script casts the robot as a statistician, a poet, a musician, a writer of jokes, a sociologist, as well as a machine."¹ The initial performance, live, in costume and with basic props, was presented as a committee report in a tenth-grade social studies class. The presentation so caught the imagination and interest of the class that a spontaneous suggestion to convert the report into a slide-tape project for future use was immediately adopted. Class members volunteered for membership on a small *ad hoc* committee and, within a week, had the production underway. Perhaps the class would not have been so confident that such an undertaking could be feasible if it had not been aware that a slide-tape student-production, *Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change*, had been brought to completion with the same teacher (the author) and in the same classroom during the previous year.

A topic concerned with modern movements of intellectual change had been recently developed for the New York State tenth-grade syllabus on European studies; but coordination of methods and materials for this study area had yet to be realized on local levels. Three social studies classes, experiencing something akin to a pioneer spirit, laid plans for some permanent and useful compilation of research data on intellectual change. The non-scientific categories of such change (i.e., music, literature, art, philosophy, architecture, etc.) covering a time period 1750 to the present were selected and, with some temerity, the students suggested the possibility of a slide-tape medium.

The three classes, totaling about eighty students, soon discovered

the inadequacy of any single reference source, the limitations of the four walls of the classroom, and the stimulation of working with many adult consultants with expertise in various fields. They also learned that the particular segment of research contributed by each student was an essential component for the entire script and not just a composition or report culminating as a mark in the teacher's grade book. The script evolved from scraps of research items contributed by individual students in the several research committees organized to specialize in specific intellectual movements and time periods. Every student in the three classes was involved in the research. A script committee then accomplished the task of editing all the notes for an eighty-eight-minute script in four parts. The Introduction covers the essentials of inquiry into an historic movement; Part I develops the Enlightenment, the Age of Neo-classicism, as well as the Age of Romanticism; Part II encompasses the various post-romantic movements to about 1900; and Part III describes selected intellectualisms of the twentieth century, including a segment on elements of protest in our own times. Other committees working during unscheduled time (since the course was progressing to other areas of study) photographed, recorded and edited again and again.

Finally, the long-awaited showing of the completed production representing weeks of work became a reality. Later classes would attest to the accuracy and thoroughness of research, to the value of the series when used as suggested and to the very real existence of peer pride in a student-made production. The editors of *Professional Growth for Teachers* delineated a segment of Part I in the following fashion:² "Fairy Tales and Men-

delsohn's Wedding March, for example, help to give the flavor of romanticism. In stark contrast, the period of post-romanticism is portrayed with black-and-white drawings from a Charles Dickens' book published in the 1880's while the narrator reads passages from the book which attack social injustices."

The newest production, *Once There Were Green Fields*, utilizes the motion picture as its vehicle for presentation and is the interdisciplinary creation of Paul Goldstein with assistance from Barry Ford. Both were high school juniors at the time of production and completion. This fifteen-minute film is synchronized with a tape of music and poetry selections. The young filmmaker, making clever use of shots of Lilliputian props, back-to-back contrast scenes and pointed arrangements of shots of public signs, effectively transmits his ecological message. "My original intent when I started the film," says Paul Goldstein, "was to learn about filmmaking through experience. At the time I had no equipment and had never used a movie camera. The filming was largely a hit-or-miss procedure so I filmed a great deal and saved all 350 feet of the film. After three months of editing I reduced the footage by half. In fact, to tell the truth, I had seen the film so many times while putting it together, I got kind of sick of it."

Even though all these productions can stand on their own merit, still to be answered for the reader are the questions of cost, the time factor and the merit of such undertakings to student producers and users.

Costs may be held to reasonable levels providing the teacher and students concerned conduct an inventory of needed equipment already available in the school system and in the personal possession of students and staff associated with the production. Usually such a search produces almost everything required except for film, printing costs, tapes and minor incidentals. Two of the productions described here cost under fifty dollars, and the eighty-eight-minute film on intellectual change cost about seventy dollars. The students employed no photography or

¹"*Rapping with a Robot*," *Dame Rumor* 41 (December 15, 1972): 5.

²"Sophomore Show Clarifies Changing History of Ideas," *Professional Growth for Teachers: Social Studies, Senior High School Edition* (New London, Connecticut: Croft Educational Services, Inc. Third Quarter 1970-1971): 5.

sound studios for any of the slide-or tape-making. Their studios were the out-of-doors and classrooms. As a consequence, they became attuned to the need for frequent re-recording just as they were to the need for frequent re-editing. Adult consultants from both the school and greater community provided assistance. Because of their expertise they helped to reduce frustration and time loss. They also offered their services and advice without charge, thereby helping to cut costs.

School routine and schedules need not be disrupted if the teacher and students involved in a student production adhere rather closely to a pre-planned schedule of research, scriptwriting and editing. After all, the course for which the production is an integral part must be allowed to move ahead. This is possible if students are willing to work on the film project during their free time. On occasion there may be the danger that students can become so carried away with "doing" that they may forget the intent of the production. Goals and values should be established at the beginning and revised from time to time, subject to realistic needs for change. Such undertakings should enhance the course of study and, therefore, should be integrated features of an area of study meeting specific needs.

If so much time and effort are to be spent on this type of learning experience, the production should be of good enough quality so that the students may feel a genuine sense of pride in what they have achieved. Such projects should also be of legitimate use to themselves and, if possible, to students in subsequent classes. They should be designed so that later classes can adapt and re-edit them for their particular needs and purposes. Slide-tape productions are ideal for such adaptations. Because of later varied uses of such productions, it is important to secure the written approval of parents whose sons or daughters are receiving credit in any way related to student-made productions and to keep such approvals on file.

How do students feel who are active participants in a production integrated in some segment of a so-



Scenes from the Kingston High School slide-tape student-production
Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change

cial studies course? Observable was a heightened interest in the topic under study as well as the emergence of an awareness that one's own work was essential to the progress of another person or committee.

In terms of actual student responses, the following observations were made by three student members of the classes involved in the production of *Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change*.³

The initial reaction of many of us . . . was a combination of enthusiasm and skepticism. . . . We must say that when we started . . . we did sense an air of unconcern in some students. . . . But this feeling did not last too long. With all of the resource materials and topics that needed research, we found it easy to become involved. . . . To some of us the actual research was the most enjoyable and rewarding. . . .

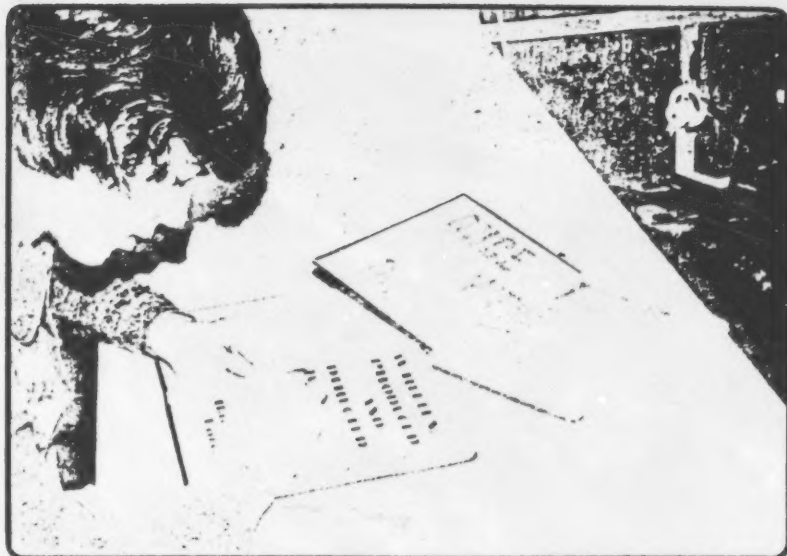
We began to realize just how much effort is put into every audio-visual production shown in the classroom. . . .

Re-recording was frequently necessary. . . . It is now hard to listen to the audio part of any film without marveling at the narrator's ability to deliver even the simplest lines. . . .

As the classes viewed the nearly completed efforts . . . the feelings of accomplishment were indescribable. We were to see that every picture and every bit of evidence had been the work of some one of us. Not only a slide-tape project had been created, but we . . . had made an idea into a reality.

We hope that this audio-visual project will be of great aid in inquiry and discovery for those students who come in contact with it. We think it will be since students, from our own experience, tend to relate well to the work of other students.

Paul Goldstein's *Once There Were Green Fields* had quite a different impetus for production in terms of the classroom. "It wasn't until I was actually working on the film," Paul says, "that I saw the possibility of gearing the film for classroom use." My film is intended to show my concern for the environment and abuses of it. I also



Once There Were Green Fields created by student filmmaker Paul Goldstein assisted by Barry Ford

liked the idea of developing the film sequences for a class assignment instead of choosing to do the usual multi-hour routine report. I really felt great anticipation showing the film for the first time."

The following realities should be considered before evaluating the direct benefit of these productions to students:

- The student producers and users had at least one semester of familiarity with the course, having already covered ancient, medieval and Renaissance studies.
- At least two to four students in each of the production groups had had previous experience with audio-visual equipment.
- The students had been exposed to a vast variety of techniques for research and investigation prior to the film experiences.
- The students, themselves, initiated interest in doing the productions.

What are the comments of those students in subsequent classes who have used any or all of these three productions? For example, the reaction of student users to *Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change* are well documented.⁵ Victoria Johnson, doing research on intellectual change a year after pro-

duction, observed that the slide series was "not only understandable but enjoyable." For Janet Ankrom it helped her "see and use the inquiry approach better than . . . before." Jeffrey Hamsher saw it "as a complete success" and Joann Struble felt "it held my interest, especially since it was done by people like myself." There were also recommendations for improvement such as Philip Kandl's comment "more pictures in the music parts" and Lucinda Notari's "a different person narrating each part would have been good."

Student reactions to *Rapping with a Robot* and *Once There Were Green Fields* were solicited during the current school year from eighty-one academic students in the tenth-year social studies classes who were researching the impact of the last two centuries of science on the quality of modern life. They used these student productions as part of their source collections.

Sixty-three percent responded favorably to *Rapping with a Robot*. Lisa Harris felt the film told her things she never knew before. "Automation is part of a way of life," she commented. The slides prompted her to wonder "if we are getting lazier and lazier and forgetting how to do things, but the film showed some aspects of automation, too, and gave me ideas for research." A fellow-student, Junior Thompson,

³Viola Opdahl, Lawrence Genereux, Gloria Levine, Richard Raliff, "Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change, a Student-Made Slide-Tape Project," *Social Science Record* VII (Winter 1971): 13-15.

⁴Although this interdisciplinary film has been primarily used in social studies, it was first presented to a health class taught by Anna M. Palazzo.

⁵For all quotations in this paragraph, see Viola W. Opdahl, "A Follow-up Report on a Student-Made Slide-Tape Project, Two Hundred Years of Intellectual Change," *Social Science Record* X (Autumn 1972): 13-14.

raised the point. "Instead of the robot being our slave, will we become its slave?" Roxanne Pecora observed that automation will soon become a household word in the United States. Sometime in our lives we will be living with more and more machines. Will they take over? "The presentation makes you think," Peter Harder and Kevin Ferrigan echoed the same thoughts. To Tracy Meyer, *Rapping with a Robot* "was put on at a mature level which was nice. Too many commercial filmmakers talk down to us. This production was a lot of work, it seems." Finally, Robert Morris liked the fact that "the student film producers raised good questions in the script."

Twenty-three percent of the evaluators made specific criticisms that were mostly constructive, meaningful and genuine in tone. Repeatedly proffered by this minority group were such comments as Patricia Smith's that the staccato-like monotone voice of the robot "got tiring to listen to" or Virginia Levy's statement, "there were too many facts and not enough humor to hold interest." The remaining students either made no comments or summarized content data only.

Once There Were Green Fields, exhibited to the class by the producer himself, received almost unanimous acclaim. Out of seventy-eight students reacting to this presentation, ninety-two percent rated it good to excellent without any negative comments. Typical of such supportive reaction was that of Tracy Meyer. "I thought," she said, "the film was done extremely well. It got the point across and the music was appropriate. It was serious and set a certain mood. I thought it was really good, especially for being made by students. I thought it was more interesting and informative than some of the commercial movies." Dan Ramus' comment was, "An interesting job! The music was slow and sad to give you a feeling of disgust and grief while looking at the polluted environment." "I liked how it didn't have too much talking. You could concentrate more on the scenes," said Patricia Smith. "The reason most of all it was done by a student and you figure another student would know how to make a

film you like." And James Matteo observed, "It showed so many ways the population is affecting our landscape. It started me thinking about our own research activities."

Randy Crego felt, "Yes, *Once There Were Green Fields* presented the problem but it failed to show enough ways to fight or change this problem." And Laurie Dunning wanted "not just a presentation on land pollution but also one to include air and water pollution."

Teacher observation of class work following immediate use of student productions generated these conclusions:

- A stimulation of interest among a majority of the students in discovering unique approaches to their own research.
- Appreciation and pride in student productions often identified in student-to-student and student-to-teacher dialogues.
- Good overall comprehension of problems related to themes of production. (This was especially good relative to *Rapping with a Robot* and *Once There Were Green Fields*, probably because these were short productions and each could be oriented around a single concept.)
- Student enjoyment in being able to participate in an evaluation program of student-made films.

Additional benefits accruing from these production projects have been:

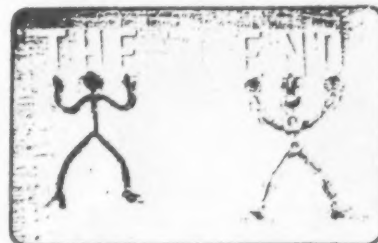
- A new dimension of experience within the classroom framework for both the producers and the users.
- An environment in which inquiry methods took on a fresh appeal and immediate meaning.
- A heightened interest in research and discussion.
- Good analytical-type questions from a greater number of students.
- Less self-consciousness in formulating conclusions of both a tentative and substantiated nature.
- A good spontaneous understanding of the relationship of historic movements to each other (i.e., Romanticism as a possible backlash to reason).
- An opportunity for self-expression and recognition, particularly for those students with tendencies to recede to the background in the daily hustle and bustle of school life.

One may ask if other teaching devices cannot produce the same or

similar observations. Of course, they can! And some devices can be more effective in the right environment. Who has not listened to a frankly didactic discourse by a dynamic classroom lecturer at some time in the educational experience and not been stimulated to new thoughts and toward exciting experiences? Does such a lesson need other apologia? Many values and worthwhile experiences can be chalked up in the use of student panels, selected simulation games, visiting speakers, role-playing, scholarly in-depth research or a good text. Student productions are by no means *the method* but only *one* of many methods to help make learning more vibrant and participatory. Certainly the merits of superimposing such productions on a classroom activity already operating at a high interest level are debatable.

Even if a teacher has two or three such productions at the disposal of the class, they should not be paraded out year after year to be used in routine pedantic fashion. All such productions, no matter how good, should be used judiciously, and, as with other media, the particular needs and emotional environment of the class must be first evaluated. What works best for the particular occasion? For example, if class members have poor self-images, will they feel threatened by student successes of previous years? Does the class under consideration have students with their own unique talents and accomplishments that should be capitalized on?

In summary, student productions can play a significant role in the classroom learning experience. The benefits to the producers are certainly manifold. In addition, the majority of student users react very positively to judicious use of the productions. ■



Last slide for *Rapping with a Robot*

HOW TO COOPERATE WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES

BY M. L. FRANKEL

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Number 17. How To Do It Series

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APPENDIX B

RESOURCE BIBLIOGRAPHY

PART. I: BOOKS

The following collected Resource Bibliography is offered to the package developer and instructor as a limited suggested list of additional resources to be consulted for more extensive or in-depth coverage of the methodologies, strategies, and activities covered in this handbook. Most are available in professional libraries and from the publishers as indicated. It is hoped that as teachers attempt to design, develop, and implement a greater variety and number of instructional activities in both learning packages and regular classroom instruction they will consult additional references for guidelines and suggestions for optimal success in the utilization of selected strategies and student activities where a source is felt to be of particular value, an asterisk (*) is added.

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Unquestionably the most comprehensive practical strategies handbook available to secondary school teachers currently found on the market. Also generally applicable to elementary level teaching. Covers virtually the complete range of teaching methodologies and specific strategies with very specific attention to philosophical rationale for conceptual definitions and descriptions, application techniques and suggestions, examples, and limitations and problems relating to teaching and instructional procedures available to contemporary educators. Including both the traditional and the most modern pedagogical methods and procedures, the handbook is appropriate to teachers in all subject areas and on practically all levels, and includes the following four divisions: 1. "Preinstructional Activities"

(Concept Teaching, Goals and Objectives, and Instructional Planning); II. "Conventional Methods and Techniques: Focus Upon the Individual" (Motivation; Individualization; Questioning, Sociometric, Sociodramatic, and Case Study methods and strategies); III. "Conventional Methods and Techniques: Focus Upon the Group" (Discussion, Debate, Inquiry, Small-Group, Group Process, Lecture, Film and Television Analysis, Review, and Testing methodology and strategies); and IV. "Contemporary Instructional Developments and Trends" (Accountability, Individualized Instruction, Differentiated Staffing and Flexible Scheduling, Independent and Semi-Independent Study, and Research Methods, Value Development, Encouraging Creativity, and Teaching the Culturally Diverse methodologies and strategies). Supplemented with subject-specific and most recent methods notes and readings, etc. The book could become a teacher's "Bible" and is highly recommended to both preservice and inservice teachers, teacher-trainers, and school and district professional libraries or resource centers. Its greatest drawback is its cost, \$22.95 (as of Spring, 1976), but there's a lot there even at that price! Available for examination on 30-day approval basis only from your local Allyn and Bacon representative. Throughout the rest of this bibliography separate sections and chapters will be referred to as appropriate.

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PART II: ARTICLES, PAMPHLETS

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